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**ENGAGING AND EMPOWERING READERS WITH THE 180 DAYS  
APPROACH TO WORKSHOP-BASED EXTENSIVE READING  
INSTRUCTION: A MIXED METHODS STUDY IN A SECONDARY  
ENGLISH SETTING**

Mary Anne Donnelly

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ENGAGING AND EMPOWERING READERS WITH THE 180 DAYS APPROACH  
TO WORKSHOP-BASED EXTENSIVE READING INSTRUCTION: A MIXED  
METHODS STUDY IN A SECONDARY ENGLISH SETTING

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

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of

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at

ST. JOHN'S UNIVERSITY

New York

by

Mary A. Donnelly

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## ABSTRACT

### ENGAGING AND EMPOWERING READERS WITH THE 180 DAYS APPROACH TO WORKSHOP-BASED EXTENSIVE READING INSTRUCTION: A MIXED METHODS STUDY IN A SECONDARY ENGLISH SETTING

Mary A. Donnelly

Accepted strategies and practices for secondary-level reading instruction generally fall under two categories: intensive or extensive. Intensive reading instruction values depth over breadth of reading, and extensive reading instruction prioritizes volume of reading over reading closely in the belief that reading comprehension is dependent on fluency. In the suburban New York State school district where the study was conducted, secondary English language arts teachers generally utilized intensive reading instruction with canonical works of literature despite growing signs of student disengagement in the last several years.

Kelly Gallagher and Penny Kittle's collaborative work, *180 Days: Two Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents* (2018) offers a model of extensive workshop-based instruction that gives students choice in 75% of the texts they are assigned to read during the academic year. The present mixed-methods research study sought to validate the effectiveness of the model with empirical research. A quasi-experimental pretest posttest research approach supplemented by qualitative data on instructional context was used to answer the research questions. The independent variable was the method of teaching literature. Seven teachers used the Gallagher and Kittle

(2018) model with students for one semester. Five additional teacher volunteers were elicited to make a control group yielding equitable student demographics. Student comprehension was measured with a leveled-reading assessment. The RSPS2 survey (Henk, Marinak and Melnick, 2012) was used to measure student self-perceptions. A total of 167 students' assessment scores were evaluated through paired samples t-tests and repeated measures ANOVA. Qualitative analysis of teacher interviews and observation narratives was used to supplement the assessment data.

While the quantitative data did not yield statistically significant results in the examination of performance gains between the two groups for either assessment, substantial qualitative data revealed that teachers found implementation of the model to be successful in motivating students to read. While the qualitative results of the study appear to suggest that teachers believe the Gallagher & Kittle (2018) model is successful, future research is recommended to further evaluate its long-term impact on students' comprehension and reader self-perceptions.

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Without the teamwork and collaboration of Kelly Gallagher and Penny Kittle, there would have not been the *180 Days* instructional approach for me to examine in this dissertation. I'm grateful to them as well as to the other educational leaders frequently cited in this study: Nancie Atwell, Kyleene Beers, Bob Probst, and Kate Roberts. I'm continually inspired by your passion and dedication to our profession.

Thanks is due to the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Richard Bernato, Dr. Randall Clemens, and to my committee chairperson, Dr. Rene Parmar. I consider myself blessed to have been able to work on this project with such talented mentors.

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## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

For those studying secondary education, there is much appeal in becoming a teacher of English language arts. Unlike content-focused disciplines such as algebra and European history, secondary English instruction focuses on a progression of language skills to help students develop capacities for reading, writing, speaking, and listening. There are several accepted strategies and practices for secondary-level reading instruction (Tierney & Readence, 2000), but each generally fall under two categories: *intensive* or *extensive*. Intensive reading instruction values depth over breadth of reading, meaning that students are tasked with reading few works of literature, but they spend a great deal of time reading the literature closely and critically (Coleman; 2014; McConn, 2016). Conversely, extensive reading instruction prioritizes volume of reading over reading closely in the belief that reading comprehension is dependent on fluency, which is dependent upon volume of engaged reading (Atwell, 1998; Gallagher & Kittle, 2018; Topping, Samuels, & Paul; 2007; Wolf, 2007).

Scholars of secondary English education (Atwell, 1998; Beers & Probst, 2017; Gallagher, 2009; Kittle, 2013; Roberts, 2018) who advocate for the use of extensive approaches to reading instruction argue that the primary use of teacher-selected whole-class texts, despite its decades-long ubiquity in the field, is an ineffective approach to teaching reading. Atwell (1998), who is credited with having formalized the Reading-Writing Workshop approach to secondary English language arts instruction (Tierney & Readence, 2000), argued that teachers' dependence on whole-class texts often results in holding students accountable for reading rather than assessing to what extent students

make meaning from the reading. The process of assigning reading for homework, quizzing students on recall from the reading, and using teacher's manuals or old lesson plans to drive class discussion is a teacher-centered rather than a student-centered instructional process (p. 28).

English language arts emerged as a discrete academic discipline in the early twentieth century, and it underwent several periods of reform in the decades to follow (Applebee, 1974; Brass, 2016). The first learning standards for the subject, however, did not appear until a nationwide accountability movement of the 1990s prompted nearly every state department of education to articulate subject-specific learning targets to be assessed by student achievement exams (Gibbs & Howley, 2001). Despite efforts to ensure accountability, a 2008 governmental report warned that U.S. students were not performing as well academically as some of their international peers (Barnum, 2019). The Common Core State Standards (CCSS) Initiative emerged soon after, aiming to unify learning standards across all 50 states by presenting literacy achievement targets by grade level ("English Language," 2010). The CCSS gained the attention of state leaders thanks in part to financial incentives from the federal government (Barnum, 2019). The New York State Education Department received financial compensation from the federal government for its own implementation plan, which included using CCSS to write English curriculum modules (Timberlake, Thomas, & Barrett, 2017). Whether or not schools opted to use the modules, teachers were tasked with using the CCSS as a guide for developing curricula and utilizing teaching strategies to help students forge a deeper understanding of the subject (Ajayi, 2016). In the absence of a true state or national

curriculum; however, pedagogical variations in secondary English education will continue to vary.

School districts in New York State have jurisdiction to establish specific frameworks for grade-level curricula to ensure proper implementation of learning standards. Within this model, school districts may compel English teachers to engage students in the study of required literary works from grade-level canons (Tierney & Readence, 2000). Others may offer teachers partial or full autonomy in the selection of literature. Some others may also permit teachers to select their preferred instructional approach: intensive, extensive, or a mixture of both. With its wide variety of instructional strategies and practices for reading, the structure of the discipline lends itself to ongoing debate about how to define best practice in teaching literature, especially to secondary students (McConn, 2016; Roberts, 2018; Tierney & Readence, 2000).

In the early 2010s, the New York State Education Department released several scripted curricular modules for English language arts consisting of unit and lesson plans, materials, and assessments. Modules were created to assist school districts in the required implementation of the CCSS, and they were made available free of charge through the State's Education Department website for school districts to adopt or adapt as they saw fit (Timberlake, et al., 2017). In that time, the English department in the school district where this study was conducted had begun to commission several of its own curriculum writing projects to develop CCSS-aligned units of study for reading, writing, argumentation, research, and grammar. Despite the presence of the State modules and locally-authored curricula, this district's English language arts teachers retain the autonomy to apply learning standards with any literature and through any instructional

method of their choosing, as long as both are deemed sound by school district administration. Therefore, teachers' approaches to reading instruction vary at present. Some have experimented with variations of Atwell's (1998) Reader-Writer Workshop model, but most appear to prefer a traditional intensive approach that relies heavily on the use of whole-class texts selected from the literary canon. Roberts (2018) suggests that teachers' apparent preference for whole-class texts centers on two core beliefs; one, that struggle with complex works is productive for young readers, and two, that use of rigorous common reads is essential to develop a strong, literate community of readers (p.17).

McConn (2016) noted that Common Core-era policy appears to drive teachers toward use of intensive approaches (p. 179). In his April 2011 speech at the New York State Education Department building, David Coleman, a chief architect of the Common Core State Standards Initiative, emphasized the need for teachers to engage students in more close reading of complex texts, seeking depth rather than breadth of reading material. Coleman's arguments also emphasized a need for more complex texts to adequately prepare students for the rigorous reading to be demanded of them in college and beyond ("Bringing the Common," 2014). Numerous professional texts authored by Gallagher (2009), Kittle (2013) and Beers and Probst (2017) advocate not only for extensive reading instruction, but for its use through the kind of workshop-based instruction made popular by Atwell (1998) and through Lucy Calkins's work with the Teachers College Reading and Writing Project (Calkins, Vanderburg, & Kloss, 2018). Workshop-based instruction is rooted in the fundamental belief that reading skills are learned only as students are actively engaged in reading texts they can comprehend and

not through teacher-centered direct instruction of texts too difficult for them to read without heavy scaffolding (Atwell, 1998; Beers and Probst, 2017; Kittle, 2013).

Because the importance of close reading with complex texts is stressed by the Common Core State Standards Initiative (Coleman, 2014), and because it is still common practice to assess learning standards with accountability exams (Timberlake, et al. 2017), some well-meaning school districts and teachers may have negative impressions of workshop-based extensive reading instruction. A review of the literature suggests that the social and political climate that gave rise to the Common Core State Standards Initiative and its focus on the importance of intensive reading instruction spurred a resurgence in the debate about its superiority over extensive approaches without sufficient empirical evidence to support one method over the other.

### **Need for the Study**

As an English chairperson, the researcher supervises approximately 30 secondary English teachers and two library media specialists in the school district where this study was conducted. Some of the teachers had previously reported to the researcher that many of their students receive poor grades because they do not complete required reading assignments. Teachers had also reported that students often exhibited signs of disengagement and apathy, even if they did appear to be reading the required material. These teachers expressed feelings of powerlessness to student disengagement, occasionally attributing technological advances of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century for students' dwindling interest in the act of reading. In his memoir on teaching high school English, Rademacher (2017) cites the ubiquity of internet-based resources as significant challenge in teaching with an intensive approach. Citing frustration with his students' pervasive use

of SparkNotes.com to conduct comprehension assessments, he concedes, “I’ve taken to instituting a new policy in the work involved in my classes. A policy or a rule, or... I suppose most accurately, a question: ‘Can Google do this?’” (p. 99).

For whatever reason, be it apathy, boredom, or a legitimate need for assistance, adolescents of the digital age have mastered the art of fake reading, a broad term used to describe how students feign engagement (Brown & Fisher, 2006) and compensate for a lack of authentic reading of assigned texts with assistance from the internet (Beers & Probst, 2017; Kittle, 2013). To what extent students have disengaged with text is difficult to measure unless they themselves admit to doing so. Due to the ubiquity of intensive reading instruction featuring canonical works of literature as whole-class texts, there are any number of ways that a student can fake authentic reading and engagement with text. While students may appear to demonstrate an understanding of the content and can perform well on simple recall or even some analytical assessments, they can do so without the action of reading the text. This is antithetical to the overarching purpose of reading instruction; students need practice in reading in order to become proficient readers (Topping et al., 2007). Using internet sources to access plot summaries and lists of key characters does nothing to build the fluency and stamina that comes with authentic and engaged reading of text. Further, internet use appears to be inversely related to student achievement scores on the verbal portion of the PSAT, which have dropped between 1999 and 2008 (Carr, 2010).

For students to meet the overarching goals of the Common Core State Standards Initiative, secondary English educators need to utilize instruction motivates students to engage in authentic reading practices. Roberts (2018) argues that choices about how texts



are selected should depend on teachers' knowledge of their students, available resources, and the desired learning outcomes; however, "all too often these choices are made because 'this is how we've always done it' or because of rigidly held ideas about the teaching of texts and reading" (p. 5). Ainsworth (2013) would agree, noting that teachers who have the autonomy to choose an instructional approach will "naturally 'pick and choose' those they know and like best" (p. 16). Teachers may also find it easier to use whole-class texts to drive reading instruction, as it is not difficult to develop or even purchase unit plans, materials, and lesson activities that can be used from year to year (Atwell, 1998, p. 28).

The common instructional practices noted above come into question given what is known about students' interests and motivation to read (Applebee, 1997; Gallagher, 2009; Kittle, 2013). Yet these practices continue, likely due to strongly-held beliefs by many teachers: that students need to read great works of literature; that struggling with complex text is productive for readers; that use of whole-class texts builds a strong, literature community of readers; that students benefit from teacher-controlled questions and activities (Roberts, 2018). The literary canon, a body of time-honored works of literature, is a 150-year old institution that maintains gripping control over secondary English Language Arts curricula nationwide (Applebee, 1974; Gallagher, 2009). It is common practice for school districts to require the teaching of canonical works of literature by grade level. Fisher and Ivey (2007) acknowledge the irony of this practice, as a content review of state learning standards pre-CCSS revealed no explicit mention of certain texts or authors. Though learning standards have evolved through the decades, they all similarly emphasize reading, writing, and speaking about a variety of texts to

develop students' understanding of literary devices and to build competencies in reading comprehension and writing strategies (p. 495).

Kittle (2013) argues that teachers who dare to challenge the ubiquity of the literary canon may face scrutiny from colleagues, but the likely increase in student engagement supersedes complacency for the status-quo. This is not a new concept. Applebee (1997) describes his work with one teacher who abandoned the practice of teaching reading chronologically through the history of American literature. Curriculum was re-aligned to connect with discussion-worthy topics instead, which led to increased engagement among students. The impetus for this change was driven by teacher reflection. An example follows:

*The Scarlet Letter* and *The Great Gatsby* were two texts that had always been well received by students. Because they had been so successful, Harrison continued to teach them as he had in the past, with an emphasis on structure and symbolism... The students reacted negatively to both of the novels. Harrison's old lesson plans did not fit with the new issues, and the students saw both books as essentially irrelevant... (p. 28).

The example suggests that many students find textual analysis of author's craft and literary devices boring. Yet these are reading competencies on which students are most frequently assessed through English-specific standardized exams.

Advocates for extensive reading instruction argue that students can develop literacy competencies through increasing volume of reading, and that this must be supported by giving students more access to high-interest reading materials (Atwell, 1998; Gallagher, 2009; Kittle, 2013). This connects to Applebee's (1997)

acknowledgement that, “individual texts are not simply ‘appropriate’ or ‘interesting’ for particular students or courses, but become appropriate or inappropriate according to the questions that are asked and the conversations that are generated around them” (p. 28).

Gay (2018) argues for the consideration of culture and diversity in curriculum design because education is ultimately sociocultural process, and learning is shaped by cultural influences (pp. 8-9). The traditional model of teaching reading, which focuses on the primary use of canonical works of literature taught as whole-class texts, does not consider the diversity of students’ personal cultural backgrounds. Students are more readily-able to comprehend complex text if they can draw upon prior knowledge and experience to make meaning (Wolf, 2007). However, Young (2010) found that teachers who acknowledge and value the theory of culturally relevant pedagogy are apt to set it aside if they don’t believe it equates to the kind of academic rigor demanded by the CCSS and associated high-stakes tests (p. 252).

Nearly a decade after New York State’s implementation of the CCSS, the initiative was widely considered a failure (Barnum, 2019). In a 2015 report to New York Governor Andrew M. Cuomo, a task force formed with various stakeholders in public education offered several points of criticism of both the CCSS and the state’s implementation plan. Major issues included the State’s failure to elicit meaningful input from educators, the rigidity of the Standards, and complications related to the State-provided curriculum modules (Common Core, 2015, pp. 7-8). The New York State Education Department responded to these concerns by initiating the development of the Next Generation Learning Standards for English Language Arts to eventually replace the CCSS. These new standards are revisions of the Common Core language arts standards.

Developed with feedback from classroom teachers, parents, school administrators and higher education faculty from across the state, the new Standards address the critical points of the previous noted by the Common Core Task Force (Elia, 2019). To provide more educator support for the new learning standards, the State will offer guidance on balancing literary and information reading, “and to ensure students read both full-length texts and shorter pieces, as well as to encourage reading for pleasure” (New York State Education Department, 2016). Full implementation of the NYS Next Generation Learning Standards is not planned until September 2020 (Elia, 2019); however, released documents appear to indicate at least some support for workshop-based extensive reading instruction. Notably, the self-selection of texts based on interest, the wide and often reading of a range of global and diverse texts, and reading for pleasure are noted as lifelong practices of readers that should be supported through relevant instruction (*Introduction to the New York*, 2017, pp. 2-3).

Citing Atwell’s (1998) work as inspiration, authors Kelly Gallagher and Penny Kittle have become staunch advocates of workshop-based extensive reading instruction with high school students. Their collaborative work, *180 Days: Two Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents* (2018) offers a curricular frame for secondary English language arts instruction that claims to boost students’ motivation to read by offering students least some choice in 75% of the texts they are assigned to read during the academic year. This is a significant departure from the kind of instruction prescribed by the guiding literacy principles of CCSS (McConn, 2016), and it was not addressed in the resource materials distributed with the upcoming NYS Next Generation Standards (Elia, 2019). While their approach was backed by anecdotal statements of

success, its overall effectiveness in improving student learning outcomes had not yet been evaluated with empirical research. Further, while many teachers may see this model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction as a common-sense approach to improving students' perceptions of reading, there are a number of reasons why they might be hesitant to implement a pedagogical shift. Among these are strong mental models about what English teaching *is* or *is not*, fatigue from past curriculum changes and failed initiatives, generalized apprehension to change, a disinterest in continual learning, or perhaps even a desire to maintain the status-quo (Reeves, 2006). With few exceptions, most secondary English education pre-service teacher programs appear to promote the use of intensive reading instruction with whole-class texts. According to Rademacher (2017), English language arts teachers appear to utilize the same kind of instruction they themselves had when they were in middle school and high school.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to use a quasi-experimental research approach supplemented by qualitative data on instructional context to describe the impact that the implementation of one semester of Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction had on secondary English language arts students and their teachers in one suburban central high school district in New York State. The study attempted to address questions about the overall effectiveness of an instructional approach that had yet to be evaluated through prior research.

### **Conceptual Framework**

As noted above, this study sought to describe outcomes from the implementation of a set model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction with secondary students.

It did not attempt to address the root causes of students' apparent declining literacy (Barnum, 2019; Carr, 2010), nor did it attempt to discover causes of student disengagement, apathy or lack of motivation for reading (Beers & Probst, 2017). However, these problems are presented in review of the literature to examine how social practice and theory intersect to impact Students' Motivation to Read (SMR). The conceptual framework guided the researcher's hypothesis that the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive literature instruction would be found just as effective as traditional intensive models in improving students' reading comprehension; however, students who experience this approach were likely to demonstrate positive growth in reader-self perceptions.

**Students' Motivation to Read (SMR):** There are many reasons why students may be disinclined to read, but it can be assumed that a significant factor relates to low motivation. Glasser (1969) found that many schools banned the kinds of books that children enjoyed reading, namely comic books. Arguing that children often find school books unstimulating, and therefore, fail to see the relationship between school reading and outside reading, Glasser believed that teachers do students a grave disservice when they teach with texts that are unappealing to students (p. 49). Gallagher and Kittle (2018) state in their own core beliefs the idea that engagement is driven by choice, adding that students must have an "opportunity to wrestle with the greatness of literature on their own terms" (p. 10-11). These beliefs are supported by Flowerday and Schraw (2003), who argued that students will feel a greater sense of personal autonomy and enjoyment for their work only when they have more control in their learning. Further, narrowing

students' reading experience to canonical works of literature does not account for "multiple diversities to the many different aspects of human life" (Gay, 2018 p. 22).

While there are plausible, theory-supported arguments for use of workshop-based instruction, its use is still uncommon among secondary English language arts teachers. The belief in the importance of canonical works of literature comes into conflict with the types of text that students prefer. A synthesis of the qualitative data archiving used by Applebee (1974) reveals that the content, quality, and usefulness of the literary canon has been the subject of professional debate for decades. After examination of relevant public addresses from the National Council of Teachers of English and press from the early 1900s, Applebee noted the following:

Most high school teachers of English were more sincere in their support of a common-school curriculum, but most agreed that in the end of the classic texts were most important. They were willing, even eager, to use contemporary materials, but only as a bridge back to the works with which the curriculum had long dealt (p. 59).

The literature has not yielded much to either validate or vilify the effectiveness of workshop-based instruction (McConn, 2016; Roberts, 2018). This study incorporated the use of a quasi-experimental pretest posttest research design to examine a hypothesis that use of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive literature instruction for one semester would be found just as effective as traditional intensive models in improving students' reading comprehension (Creswell, 2014 p.297). However, examination of the literature through the conceptual framework lens suggests that students who experience this approach will eventually demonstrate positive growth in

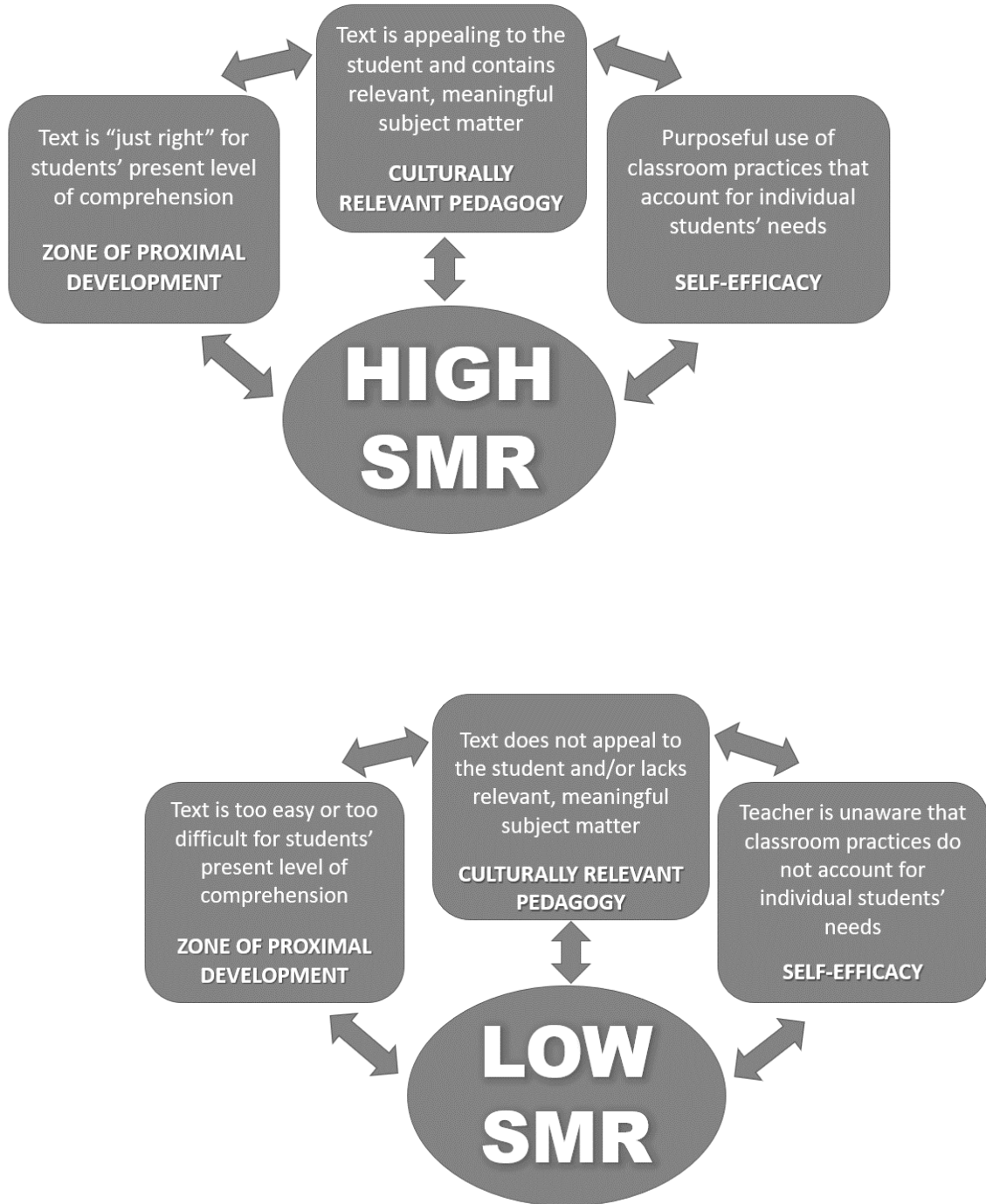
reader-self perceptions (Atwell, 1998; Beers & Probst, 2017; Flowerday & Schraw, 2003; Gallagher & Kittle, 2018). Figure 1 below indicates that the variable Student's Motivation to Read (SMR) lies at the intersection of self-efficacy, the ability to choose, and reading within the student's Zone of Proximal Development (Bandura, 1994; Gallagher & Kittle, 2018; Vygotsky, 1981). The SMR variable is impacted by varying conditions that underlie each of the three theories. The quality of students' reading practice can be assessed based on to what extent students successfully comprehend material at "an appropriate level of challenge" (Topping et al., p. 253). Flowerday and Schraw (2003) maintain that teacher-controlled learning environments negatively affect students' sense of personal autonomy, which slows learning and leads to poor perceptions of school. When students feel that they have more control in their learning, they feel a greater sense of personal autonomy and enjoyment for their work. This argument is emphasized through William Glasser's observations of at-risk students in the Palo Alto school district that yielded *Schools Without Failure* (1969). Glasser theorized that students who are highly motivated will engage with reading, even if it is challenging; however, students who have low motivation will withdraw, give up trying to be involved, and fail (pp. 218-219).

The intersection of theory that guided the conceptual framework supposes that students will not read if they are not motivated to do so. Figure 1 provides two plausible scenarios that speak to the interconnected nature of students' reading comprehension and perceptions of reading with teacher self-efficacy.



**Figure 1**

*Conceptual Framework*



Using Bandura's (1994) definition of self-efficacy, it is understood that the confidence that a teacher has in his or her level of performance can exercise influence over students in the classroom. Bandura wrote, "self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" (p. 2). It is important to note, however, that teachers who demonstrate too much confidence in their abilities may be hesitant to change because they may not see students' low motivation in correlation with their teaching practices. As noted by Bernato (2017), teachers with deeply engrained mental models about teaching literature could stymie progress through proactive thinking (p. 12).

Students are more likely to read if they are adequately motivated to do so; therefore, increased SMR equates to more extensive reading. As children and teenagers engage in the act of reading, they build stamina and fluency (Beers & Probst, 2017). Wolf (2007), who wrote extensively on the neuroscience of learning to read, states that each time students read a new text, the neuronal pathways for recognizing words and sentence patterns become more and more automatic thanks to their brain's ability to organize information. With greater fluency, it is easier for readers to more rapidly create representations of their visual information to make meaning from the text (p. 14). Therefore, fluent readers have a capacity to engage with text on a deeper level because of the brain's integration of imagery and inferential information from their reading to their own thinking and personal beliefs. This supposes that students are, for better or for worse, in actual control of their own literacy development.

Because many students find canonical works of literature un-relatable and boring, and because the internet creates opportunities for students to avoid reading assigned

works and still fare well on content-focused class assessments (Rademacher, 2017), students who are not motivated to read easily can avoid doing so without danger of failing their English language arts classes.

Teachers may not be aware that a heavy reliance on canonical works of literature as whole-class texts is antithetical to their instructional goals. They may not understand that leading students through a teacher-driven analysis of classic authors such as Shakespeare, Milton or Hemingway may cause students to withdraw from authentic reading, either because it is too difficult for them or because they are bored (Gallagher, 2009; Glasser, 1969). They may not be well-read enough to acknowledge that many young adult (YA) novels, graphic novels, and books in verse can be used to teach the same themes and enduring understandings highlighted in the canon. Therefore, teachers' mental models about best practice in literacy instruction are examined in the context of this study as well.

### **Significance of the Study**

The question about whether choice affects cognitive and affective engagement (Flowerday & Schraw, 2003) is central to the debate about whether providing students with greater choice in their learning will motivate them to put forth more effort. While anecdotal evidence suggests that workshop-based instruction leads to desired outcomes (Calkins, et al, 2018; Gallagher and Kittle, 2018; Kittle, 2013; Roberts, 2018), there is not enough research to refute claims that intensive instruction with rigorous, complex texts is the necessary approach to ensure that students attain literacy skills needed for college and beyond ("English Language," 2010).

## Research Questions

The following three research questions were posed to guide the study:

1. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reading comprehension as measured by an assessment?
2. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reader self-perceptions as measured by the RSPS2?
3. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching literature as measured by semi-structured interviews and a classroom observation protocol modified from the Danielson framework ("The Intersection," 2014)?

## Definition of Terms

For the purposes of the study, the following operational definitions will be used:

**Book Club.** The term "Book Club" refers to a workshop-based instructional model where students select one text from a finite number of texts to read independently in the context of a small group (Gallagher & Kittle, 2018).

**Close reading.** The term “close reading” is defined as focused critical reading of text that values a deep, precise analysis of the author’s craft and purpose through examination of diction, syntax, and tone.

**English language arts curriculum.** The term “English language arts curriculum” is defined as the concepts and skills mandated by the state’s learning standards for English Language Arts and the school district to guide the instruction of reading, writing, speaking and literature within the school year.

**English language arts teacher.** The term “English language arts teacher” is defined as a public school teacher certified in English Language Arts Grades 7-12 in the State of New York.

**Extensive reading.** The term “extensive reading” is defined as the act of reading literature with less focus on close reading and text analysis and more focus on the volume of reading (Kutiper, 1983; McConn, 2016).

**Free choice/Independent reading.** The term “Free choice/Independent reading” is defined as a model of literacy instruction that allows students to choose their own texts for reading assignments (Gallagher & Kittle, 2018).

**Intensive reading.** The term “intensive reading” is defined as reading the minimum amount of texts required by the English language arts curriculum with a focus on close reading and text analysis (Kutiper, 1983; McConn, 2016).

**Lexile measure.** A standard of measurement used to rank text complexity; often used to level reading selections for students by grade level ("Understanding Lexile," n.d.).

**Literary canon.** The term “literary canon” is defined as those time-honored works of literature frequently taught in English language arts curricula (Applebee, 1974; Korbey, 2019).

**Minilesson.** A brief lesson with a specialized focus that provides instruction in a skill or concept that students will practice in a follow-up reading workshop (Calkins et al., 2018).

**Reader self-perceptions.** The term “reader self-perceptions” is defined as the manner of how students feel about themselves as readers of print-based texts (Henk, Marinak and Melnick, 2013).

**Reading comprehension.** The term “reading comprehension” is defined as the ability to understand and think critically about literary and informational texts.

**Self-efficacy.** The term “self-efficacy” is defined as the judgments individuals make about their ability to perform an activity and the effect of this perception on their ongoing and future engagement with it (Bandura, 1994; Henk, et al., 2013).

**Whole-class text.** The term “whole-class text” is defined as a teacher-selected work of fiction or nonfiction, typically from the literary canon, that anchors a unit of instruction in English language arts curricula.

**Workshop-based instruction.** The term “workshop-based instruction” is defined as an instructional approach akin to the Atwell (1998) Reader-Writer Workshop model that attempts to engage students in meaningful literacy activities to develop strategic approaches to reading in a way that minimizes teacher-centered instruction and places emphasis on student-directed learning, independent reading and writing and student-teacher conferences (Tierney & Readence, 2000).

## **Chapter 2**

### **Review of Related Research**

#### **Introduction**

The school subject "English language arts" rose to prominence in the United States at the turn of the twentieth century, becoming a core subject and a universal graduation requirement within thirty years (Brass, 2016, p. 221). The texts selected for inclusion in the early literary canon were often companion pieces for the study of mythology or history. Some were considered prestigious in relation to a study of rhetoric, as many of them had been used as material for analysis (Applebee, 1974, pp. 34-35). Arthur Applebee, known for his over twenty-five years of research into the history of teaching English language arts, found that a school's curricular choices have historically reflected the culture and values of the people in the community it serves (Applebee, 1997). He traced the birth of the American literary canon to a 1867 publication of an annotated school edition of *The Tragedy of Julius Caesar*, noting that as schools increased their attention to the study of English literature, the publication of school editions of popular works became more and more common (Applebee, 1974). The literary canon further evolved in 1920s and 1930s because of post-WWI nationalism and growing interest in social studies in college-level study. Post-secondary English language arts classes were driven by a chronological survey of American literature, at least until those works became increasingly irrelevant to adolescents coming of age in the 1960s and beyond (Applebee, 1994, pp 27-28). Applebee conducted case studies of exemplary curricular models in the 1990s, where the chronological organization of curriculum was abandoned in favor of thematic units. More and more teachers restructured curriculum

“to include activities such as role playing to draw on students experiences, multiple texts instead of one text read by everyone, and room to explore multiple interpretations and diverse points of view” (p. 29). In the years that followed, the canon adjusted to replace some classic titles with more contemporary works written from increasingly diverse perspectives.

Perhaps the great irony of the literary canon is its near worship by so many teachers of English language arts who have made instruction with classic whole-class texts a mainstay in their classrooms (Roberts, 2018). As noted by Fisher and Ivey (2007), “even a cursory review of content standards from several state departments of education reveals that specific texts and authors are not actually named” (p. 495). Rather, standards typically emphasize skills instruction in literary devices, reading comprehension skills, and writing strategies, and teachers are left to choose the literature with which to teach these skills.

This review of the literature examines the science of how students learn to read and why students of the same age and grade level have vastly different ability levels for reading. It examines what is known about students’ motivation to read and how teacher self-efficacy and chosen instructional approach may or may not impact students’ motivation to read. Finally, it examines to what extent use of Gallagher and Kittle’s (2018) curricular frame adds validity to arguments in support of extensive reading instruction.

### **Theoretical Framework**

Achievement gains in reading are directly related to students' engagement with the literature, but students’ reading engagement declines in the adolescent years (Topping



et al.; Smith, Smith and Jameson, 2012). In the digital age, it's not difficult for secondary students to disengage entirely from assigned reading due to numerous internet resources that provide answers to common questions about canonical works of literature (Atwell, 2018; Rademacher, 2017). Ironically, some systems allow students to do well in their English classes even if they don't read the required texts; therefore, students must be intrinsically motivated to engage authentically in the act of reading. This study's hypotheses reflect a crosswalk of theories about student engagement, focusing on those conditions that impact Students' Motivation to Read (SMR). Those explored in the literature include social cognitive theory and culturally-responsive pedagogy.

Inspired by Kittle (2013), an English teacher in the school district where the study was conducted gave each of his twelfth grade AP Literature and Composition students a sheet of white paper and a magic marker in early September of 2018. He asked the students to write down the number of books the students completed throughout their high school experience to date. He then assembled the students for a photograph. Of the nineteen students pictured, more than half indicated either zero or one on their paper (Stack, 2018). Glasser (1969) highlighted a concern about students who become apathetic towards their schoolwork, noting, "a serious problem in the secondary school is the student who does badly and who seems to have little motivation to do better" (p. 220). These are students who, according to Bandura (1994), are likely to "dwell on personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully" (p. 71). Couple this with a reading disability such as dyslexia, and students are apt to associate reading failure with stress and depression (Bandura, 1998; Wolf, 2007).

Rudine Sims Bishop's oft-referenced essay *Mirrors, Windows and Sliding Glass Doors* (1990) is one of the most notable arguments for the need to incorporate multi-cultural literature in the classroom. In it, Bishop posits that the use of diverse classroom literature accomplishes what the literary canon cannot: reflect the lived experiences of all students. Heineke (2014) used Bishop's metaphor to examine how use of multi-cultural texts in literature circles successfully engaged students in meaningful discourse about text by seeing a work of literature as a mirror to their own lived experience, a window into an unfamiliar world, or as a sliding glass door into the lived experience of others (p. 128).

Atwell (1998) notes that teachers' reliance on pedagogy that features one whole-class text after another is that the practice accounts for "one ability level and one level of instructional activity" (p. 80). A key component to workshop-based instruction includes time for teacher-to-student interaction in the form of reading conferences. Gallagher and Kittle (2018) maintain that conferences also provide teachers with opportunity for formative assessment of individual students, offering teachers an opportunity to learn about students' needs and address them through differentiated instruction (p. 35). Use of conferences in this manner aligns with Glasser (1969), who advocated for the kind of instruction that enables teachers to treat students as individuals, especially when class sizes are large (p. 219).

According to Leonhardt (1993), teachers must validate and respect student choice when it comes to literature selections. Although students may choose to read "huge amounts of junky subliterate (p. 28), a negative teacher reaction to students' selections could lead to a negative social persuasion that impacts students' impressions of their capabilities (Bandura, 1994). Allowing students to select their own books has a

significant impact on their fluency, reading rate, and comprehension (Atwell, 1998, p. 37). Further, students who are limited to works from the literary canon may fail to see themselves adequately and respectfully reflected in their classroom reading. Negative tropes and stereotypes about race, gender, sexual identity and disabilities occur frequently in classic literature (Bishop, 1990).

Numerous studies have shown that reading engagement, or the time that students spend reading for pleasure, correlates with reading achievement (Smith et al., 2012). According to Kittle (2013), the time to encourage students to take on more complex texts occurs when the teacher can ascertain that the student is ready to assume the challenge. The Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model creates time in the year of reading for use of core work with two whole-class texts, and this time comes at the end of each semester when students are more likely to have the stamina to work with rigorous texts with ample practice from independent and small-group choice reading (p. 67).

Gallagher and Kittle (2018) prefer to begin the academic year with independent reading, and the structure of their *180 Days* approach includes several weeks of using choice-based literature selections before they introduce a whole-class text such as a novel or play. They work closely with students in the context of teacher-student conferences to help students find a personalized rate of reading. Over the course of the year, students will work to set and eventually surpass personal reading goals each week. The practice of goal setting increases students' "cognitive and affective reactions to performance outcomes because goals specify the requirements for personal success" (Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992, p. 664).

## **Related Research**

There are a great number of known instructional techniques that qualify as accepted pedagogy for teaching reading in secondary English language arts classrooms (Tierney & Readence, 2000). A greater emphasis on the use of intensive reading strategies, or those that favor reading fewer texts in greater depth, is supported by the Common Core State Standards Initiative (Ajayi, 2014; Coleman, 2014). Supporters of intensive approaches argue that a close, attentive manner of reading texts helps students “understand and enjoy complex works of literature” (“English Language,” 2010). Extensive reading prioritizes volume over depth of reading, and extensive instructional approaches have students reading a greater number of texts, either by choice or assigned by the teacher, with less emphasis on reading closely for details (McConn, 2016). Which of these two approaches is best is a matter of ongoing debate; however, it was Nancy Coryell of Teachers College at Columbia University who first attempted to use empirical research to find an answer (McConn, 2016). Coryell’s work examined the use of intensive and extensive instructional approaches with eleventh-grade students in 1927 (Kutiper, 1983). The core question in the study has been examined again and again in the last ninety years, most recently replicated by McConn (2016), who was also unable to determine if one approach was superior to the other in improving students’ reading comprehension or analysis of literature.

Cognitive research conducted by Wolf (2007) reveals that children and teenagers build fluency and stamina as they engage in the act of reading. Each time they read a new text, the neuronal pathways for recognizing words and sentence patterns become more and more automatic thanks to the brain's ability to organize information. With greater

fluency, it is easier for readers to more rapidly create representations of their visual information to make meaning from the text (p.14). Topping et al. (2007) found that gains in reading achievement are related to the volume of engaged reading where it can be determined that students are successful in comprehending the texts they are reading.

It should be noted that neither Kelly Gallagher nor Penny Kittle believe that the whole-class novel should be abandoned entirely, which is why their model of workshop-based instruction includes room for the teaching of two whole-class texts during the academic year. Where this deviates from intensive reading instruction, however, is in the pacing. They propose using only two weeks per whole-class text, and in that limited time, focus on anchoring the study with an essential question. An example of this is in their approach for the study of *Romeo & Juliet*: they created two essential questions: 1) What is true love, and how do you know when you've found it? 2) How do decisions shape our destiny? (p. 69). Such questions steer the study of literature towards its relationship to students' lived experiences.

In his case studies on exemplary curricular design, Applebee (1997) provides an example of one teacher who continued to teach *The Scarlet Letter* and *The Great Gatsby* because they had always been well received by students. The problem came as the teacher attempted to teach them as he had in the past, emphasizing author's craft instead of engaging students in thematically-related discussion. Since students had become accustomed to an established conversational domain, the teacher's old lesson plans did not fit with the new issues. The students were unable to find relevance in their reading of either novel, and they reacted negatively to both (p. 28).

In a speech given to an audience at the New York State Education Department in October of 2011, CCSS writer and College Board President David Coleman said the following:

One of the greatest threats to a wide range of students being able to read sufficiently complex text with confidence is we keep them out of the game. Far too early and far too often we reduce text complexity for these students rather than giving them the scaffolding they need to embrace and practice that complexity (2011).

Though Coleman frequently cites research to support the claims that close reading and deep analysis of complex text is best able to help students ready themselves for the challenges of college and beyond (Student Achievement Partners, n.d.), none of the research addresses the variable of student choice or use of any kind of workshop-based instruction. The most compelling argument for intensive reading instruction comes from Willingham (2010), who synthesized research in cognitive science to demonstrate that we understand and remember that which we pay attention to and think about.

Though the New York State Education Department attempted to validate the superiority of intensive instruction in the Common Core English Language Arts modules, there is simply not enough research to refute what the findings spanning from 1927 to 2016 say about extensive instruction: it is equally as effective in improving students reading comprehension and analysis of literature as intensive instruction (McConn, 2016).

Though the popular methodology changed in the late 20th century and into the 2000s, secondary English education studies have historically focused on better

understanding how curriculum is or is not relevant to students' interests and identities (Brass & Burns, 2011; Gay, 2018). Further research is needed to determine to what extent more student choice impacts three complex factors: engaged reading (or students' motivation to read), reader self-perceptions and enjoyment of reading, and successful reading comprehension.

## **Conclusion**

This study endeavored to extend the existing research by examining the impact that the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction has on students' reading comprehension and self-perceptions as readers. This is the sum of many theoretical parts that have been examined, sometimes in isolation and sometimes together, in previous literature. The study aimed to question whether intensive strategies are superior to extensive strategies in this context by examining whether sheer volume of reading can replace the cognitive gains that are assumed to be connected with close-reading of complex text. Motivation to read was a significant variable in this study, as it can be presumed through the literature that motivated readers are likely to be more engaged readers. The study sought to challenge well-established mental models that bolster the superiority of the literary canon in secondary English language arts instruction. This study also sought to determine whether this instructional approach helps to address the decline in reading enjoyment noted in adolescence (Smith et al., 2012) and offer renewed validation of Atwell (1998), whose body of research may be called into question given its age.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Methods and Procedures**

#### **Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to describe the impact that the implementation of one semester of Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction had on secondary English language arts students and their teachers. This chapter outlines the research methodology and describes the following aspects of the study: (a) research questions; (b) research design and data analysis; (c) the sample and population; (d) instruments; (e) treatment/intervention; (f) procedures for collecting data; and (g) research ethics.

#### **Research Questions**

The literature reveals that there has been a significant amount of research conducted in the field of secondary English education, instructional methodologies, student perceptions, and the impact of choice on cognitive function and engagement. However, gaps in the literature necessitated the examination of how student choice and students' reader self-perceptions are relevant in the existing debate about instruction. Because extensive instruction can vary, the researcher focused the study by using the specific curricular frame for extensive instruction developed by Kelly Gallagher and Penny Kittle (2018) in their work *180 Days: Two Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents*. The following three research questions were posed to guide the study:

1. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle



- (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reading comprehension as measured by an assessment?
2. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reader self-perceptions as measured by the RSPS2?
  3. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching literature as measured by semi-structured interviews and a classroom observation protocol modified from the Danielson framework ("The Intersection," 2014)?

### **Research Design and Data Analysis**

A mixed-methods comparative research study was used to answer the research questions, as the first two questions involved the use of instruments that yielded quantitative data, but the third yielded open-ended narrative. Like those that have come before it, this research study aimed to compare the effectiveness of intensive and extensive methods of secondary English instruction in improving students' reading comprehension. This study adds to the existing body of literature by examining Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) specific model of workshop-based reading instruction. McConn (2016) used an extensive approach in his study, but the quality that made his approach extensive was limited to increased volume of reading. The classroom teacher selected the texts that the students read, which did not account for the variable of student choice.

Because there is a statistically significant relationship between reading achievement and secondary students' volume of engaged reading and the quality of their reading comprehension (Topping et al., 2017), the researcher hypothesized that secondary students exposed to extensive methods of teaching literature were more likely to read more texts than students who were exposed to intensive methods of reading literature. In the extensive model, students who successfully read an increased number of texts that appropriately challenge them, meaning that the reading is not too easy and not too difficult, may show significantly higher gains in reading achievement than their peers who receive intensive methods of teaching literature. The researcher also hypothesized that secondary students are more likely to engage with reading literature that they themselves can select, so long as the literature selected is appropriately challenging, and therefore have more positive reader self-perceptions. To test these hypotheses, a quasi-experimental, nonequivalent, pretest posttest comparison group research design was used to answer the research questions. This design was used because the research endeavored to find a cause-effect relationship, the independent variable can be manipulated, and the study aimed to compare two different independent variables.

In this study, the independent variable was the method of teaching literature. One group received the specific model of extensive reading instruction proposed by Gallagher and Kittle (2018), which calls for 75% or more student choice in literature selections for class assignments. The other group received the traditional intensive method of teaching literature utilized by most teachers in the district. This involved the use of primarily teacher-selected whole-class texts. In the context of the intensive method, students did not have a choice in more than 25% literature selections for class assignments. The

dependent variables were reading achievement and reader-self perceptions; both measured with objective tests. Assessments were given at the beginning and at the end of the study to compare the results of two different times of testing.

Students' reading achievement was measured by a researcher-created assessment assembled with questions used on previous National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) exams in reading for 8<sup>th</sup> grade students. Assessment components, including reading materials, questions, answer keys, and scoring guides, are available for educational use through the NAEP Questions Tool, a government-funded public database ("NAEP Questions," n.d.). Reader-self perceptions were measured by the Reader Self-Perception Survey 2 (RSPS2), an affective instrument for assessing the reader self-perceptions of students in grades 7-10 (Henk et al., 2013). Repeated measures ANOVA were used to compare test results between the control group and the treatment/intervention group on specific cognitive targets in the English language arts (National Assessment Governing Board, 2017, p. 36) and measure any changes in student's reader-self perceptions over time.

Marshall and Rossman (2016) maintain that qualitative methodology is useful in addressing the limitations of quantitative, positivist approaches because qualitative methodology enables the researcher to capture context, personal interpretation, and experience (p. 101). A mixed-methods research approach was used to collect and triangulate different types of data to more completely answer the research questions (Creswell, 2014, p. 538). The researcher sought to integrate qualitative data such as semi-structured interview responses, narrative feedback generated for classroom observation protocols, and field notes to enrich the findings in quantitative analysis of student and

teacher demographics and student assessment scores (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). Treatment/intervention group teachers were interviewed at the beginning and at the end of the study to measure any changes in their perceived self-efficacy for teaching literature. To examine the impact that treatment/intervention group instruction has on teachers and their students, the researcher gathered personal and teacher-supplied field notes and narrative feedback from classroom observations using a protocol culled from the *Danielson Observation Guide for Workshop* that focuses on the impact of teacher instruction on classroom environment performance indicators (Teachers College Reading and Writing Project, 2014).

### **Researcher Role**

The researcher is employed by the district and serves as the primary instructional supervisor for twenty-six English language arts teachers and two library media specialists in one of two middle schools and one of four high schools. By facilitating a process of group inquiry, the researcher sought to help teachers move from working as isolated individuals and towards collaborative practice to regularly engage in collegial sharing and co-planning, and to reflect on the quality of their instruction.

As the researcher's function in the district is one of supervision and evaluation, it was essentially important for the researcher to establish trust among teacher participants to ensure that accurate and honest feedback was attained throughout the process. For this reason, the researcher's classroom evaluations were used expressly for the purpose of the study.

The researcher's administrative role began in September of 2015 after having completed thirteen years of teaching high school English language arts in other school

districts. Understanding that perspective is drawn from unique experiences, the researcher deemed it essential to disclose that she had very little personal experience teaching with workshop-based extensive reading instruction. The previous school district where the researcher was employed for twelve years compelled teachers to use the EngageNY Modules for English Language Arts released by the New York State Education Department. The researcher, as a classroom teacher, attended several Network Training Institutes to receive instruction on how to turnkey this information to colleagues in her home district. Herr & Anderson (2015) note that disclosure of these perspectives or biases builds critical reflexivity into the research process, and the researcher articulated evolving perspectives in her journaling and reflective field notes for the purpose of critical examination.

From having lived the experience of teaching through various failed curricular initiatives, the researcher believed that the implementation of a significant pedagogical shift from mostly intensive to mostly extensive instruction requires both sustained instructional coaching as well as positive teacher self-efficacy.

### **Reliability and Validity of the Research Design**

The Gallagher and Kittle (2018) framework for a year of teaching reading contains two identical cycles of instruction beginning with independent/free-choice reading, continuing with Book Clubs and culminating with use of a teacher-selected whole-class text. For this reason, the researcher designed this study to take place during one complete cycle of instruction, or one semester (twenty weeks) of a two-semester academic year. The specific plan of implementation is described in later in this chapter.

A true experimental design could not be used because randomization of students was not possible. A pretest allowed for the group comparisons to be more likely attributed to the treatment/intervention instead of the differences in the group's initial abilities and perceptions of reading. Both groups being compared contained matching classes to account for differences in grade level, ability tracking (heterogeneous grouping, honors, or special education collaborative), and school building in order to eliminate extraneous variables of student age, ability-level, and location. The researcher attempted to sample from among a large group of students to mitigate threats to validity from participant attrition, and regularly-scheduled group and individual teacher meetings were consistently applied to mitigate threats based on the researcher's interactions with selection. All teachers had equal access to the professional texts and curricular materials to be utilized by the treatment/intervention group. While teachers in the both groups regularly communicated with each other because they are colleagues, the researcher ensured that teachers in both groups utilized their assigned instructional model for the duration of the twenty-week study. To minimize bias toward one instructional approach, initial presentations to all teachers included minimal background research supporting the hypotheses that would appear to favor the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction.

Prior to the beginning of the study, the researcher was one of twenty applicants from an international candidate pool selected to participate in the 2<sup>nd</sup> Tyrolia Literacy Institute in Waco, Texas. The Institute was a four-day immersive professional development experience co-facilitated by Kylene Beers, Penny Kittle, Chad Everett, Bob Probst and Linda Rief. The professional learning attained from the Institute allowed the

researcher to turnkey the professional development offered at the Institute to those teachers in the treatment/intervention group implementing the pedagogical shift. The researcher's participation in the Tyrolia Literacy Institute allowed her to connect with literacy experts not affiliated with the school district, including *180 Days* co-author Penny Kittle. Kylene Beers, Penny Kittle and Linda Rief were instrumental in advising on the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, assisting the researcher in reflecting on the overall quality of the research process, and validating her research claims. The researcher also enlisted the assistance of outsider perspectives as additional mechanisms to ensure that bias did not have a distorting effect on outcomes (Herr & Anderson, 2015). These outsiders included in-district administrative colleagues who were not intimately involved in the research study.

### **The Sample and Population**

The participants in the study were drawn from the population of eighth through tenth grade students from a suburban New York secondary high school district and their teachers. The school district services middle to upper-middle class socioeconomic groups in four communities. Of the student population, 81% are White, 10% are Hispanic or Latino, 2% are Black or African American, 6% are Asian or Pacific Islander, and 1% are Multiracial. Other student subpopulations include 15% students with disabilities, 12% economically disadvantaged, and 1% English language learners who qualify for ELL services.

Seven teachers expressed interest in participating in the study through implementation of the pedagogical shift for one semester. Five additional teachers, matched by grade level and ability group, volunteered to make up the control group in

order to represent the target population by creating a microcosm. The researcher had no input into student assignment into the teachers' classes. At the beginning of the study, students enrolled in the teachers' classes received information about the study and were given the option to participate through the submission of parental consent and student assent forms [see Appendix A].

Each school in the district runs on a six-day bell schedule comprised of nine forty-one minute classes per day. Students in 8<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> grade receive core English Language Arts instruction for one class period each day and supplementary English skills instruction for one additional period three days in the six-day cycle. 10<sup>th</sup> grade students receive core English Language Arts instruction for one class period each day without supplementary English skills instruction. Students in the treatment/intervention group received the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction during their core English Language Arts classes only, where applicable. Students in the control group received instruction that cannot, by definition or design, be classified as workshop-based instruction.

Table 3.1 outlines the number of teachers who participated in the study, either through implementation of the pedagogical shift (treatment/intervention group) or within the control group. The associated student participants are among those who returned signed informed consent and participant assent letters granting the researcher permission to access their assessment data for quantitative data analysis.



**Table 3.1***Description of Participants.*

<b>Control Group</b>			<b>Treatment Group</b>		
Grade Level	Number of teachers	Number of students	Grade Level	Number of teachers	Number of students
8	2	13	8	3	41
9	1	34	9	2	47
10	2	15	10	2	17
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>105</b>

**Instruments****Quantitative Data**

The researcher used two instruments in pretest posttest analysis of students' quantitative data. The dependent variable of reading achievement was measured through a reading assessment assembled by the researcher using the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) Questions Tool ("NAEP Questions," n.d.). The dependent variable of reader-self perceptions was measured with the Reader Self-Perception Scale 2 (RSPS2), an instrument developed, piloted and validated by Henk, et al. (2013) to measure the reader self-perceptions of students in grades 7-10. A description of the RSPS2 as well as explanation of its possible uses in assessment, instruction and research, are provided in Appendix B along with directions for administration, scoring, and interpretation.

**Leveled Reading Assessment:** Using the NAEP Questions Tool ("NAEP Questions," n.d.), the researcher created a reading assessment designed to measure students' reading comprehension and their ability to apply knowledge of vocabulary to assist in comprehension. To establish the validity and reliability of the instrument, the

researcher assembled each assessment using unaltered reading passages and questions from prior administrations of the NAEP test in reading. Each of the 3,000 questions available had already been field tested and are provided in the public domain for unrestricted use ("NAEP Questions," n.d.). The assessment, given during one forty-one minute class period at each administration, included three prose passages that corresponded with six multiple choice questions and four constructed response questions each. The reading passages and corresponding questions were assembled sequentially so that students would complete questions for one reading passage before beginning the next. Students responded to multiple choice questions using a bubble sheet that was scanned for computer-based scoring, and they wrote responses to the constructed response prompts in the assessment booklet. Questions used in the assessment are provided in Appendix D. The structure of the exam is outlined in Table 3.2 below.

**Table 3.2**

*Leveled Reading Assessment Structure*

<b>Passage Title</b>	<i>Fun</i> by Suzanne Britt Jordan	<i>Five Boiled Eggs</i> by Laura S. Sassi	<i>Little Great White</i> by Pamela S. Turner
<b>Passage Type</b>	Informational	Literary	Informational
<b>Passage Length</b>	725 words	676 words	783 words
<b>Lexile Range</b>	610L - 800L	610L - 800L	810L - 1000L
<b>Corresponding Questions</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MC 1-6</li> <li>• CR A-D</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MC 7-12</li> <li>• CR E-H</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MC 13-18</li> <li>• CR I-L</li> </ul>

Prior to the administration of the pretest, the researcher anticipated that many students would not be able to complete the exam in the time allotted. The conventional

scoring formula for multiple choice exams is to assign value to questions answered correctly and assign no value to incorrect answers or blank responses (Reid, 1976). To avoid penalizing students who were unable to complete the exam, the researcher established an adapted scoring formula

$$S = \frac{C}{N} \times 100$$

where  $C$  is the number of correct answers,  $N$  is the number of questions the student answered correctly or incorrectly, and  $S$  is the total percentage of correct responses the student provided out of all questions answered. A detailed analysis of each assessment question, including passage content (literary or informational text), cognitive targets distinguished by text type, skill(s) assessed, and question complexity designated as “easy,” “medium,” or “hard” (National Assessment Governing Board, 2017), is provided in Table 3.3.

Teacher participants administered the pretest leveled-reading assessment to their classes in the first week of November 2019, and the posttest followed in the first week of February 2020 after twenty instructional weeks, roughly the first semester of the academic year, had passed. Reading passages and questions on both exams were identical to eliminate the extraneous variables possible due to differing content. Student results were evaluated based on data provided in the 2017 NAEP Reading Framework (pp. 31-58), and the NAEP Questions Tool, which provided a multiple-choice answer key and scoring rubrics to guide the scoring of the assessment (“NAEP Questions,” n.d.).

**Table 3.3***Leveled Reading Assessment Question Detail*

<b>Text 1: Fun (Informational)</b>			
<b>Question</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Skill</b>	<b>Difficulty</b>
1	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize meaning of word as used in persuasive essay	Easy
2	Integrate/Interpret	Interpret opening paragraphs to recognize main idea	Easy
3	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize implicit supporting idea in persuasive essay	Medium
4	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize assumption related to author's point of view in persuasive essay	Easy
5	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize meaning of word as used in persuasive essay	Medium
6	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize generalization of main idea of persuasive essay based on one paragraph	Easy
<b>Text 2: Five Boiled Eggs (Literary)</b>			
<b>Question</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Skill</b>	<b>Difficulty</b>
7	Locate/Recall	Recognize paraphrase of explicit details about main character in a story	Easy
8	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize meaning of a word as used in a story	Easy
9	Locate/Recall	Recognize explicitly stated reason for character's statement in a story	Easy
10	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize meaning of word as used in a story	Easy
11	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize reason for story character's action	Easy
12	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize reason for plot resolution in a story	Easy
<b>Text 3: Little Great White (Informational)</b>			
<b>Question</b>	<b>Classification</b>	<b>Skill</b>	<b>Difficulty</b>
13	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize main purpose of article	Easy
14	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize meaning of a word as used in an article	Easy
15	Locate/Recall	Make an inference based on explicitly stated information	Easy
16	Integrate/Interpret	Recognize meaning of word as used in an article	Easy
17	Locate/Recall	Recognize explicitly stated information from article	Easy
18	Locate/Recall	Use text or graphic to recognize an explanation	Easy

**Reader Self-Perception Scale 2 (RSPS2):** The Reader Self-Perception Scale 2 (RSPS2) is a 47 question Likert-type survey designed to assess students' perceptions of themselves as readers across four scales: Progress (PR), Observational Comparison (OC), Social Feedback (SF), and Physiological States (PS). One general item that does not align with either of these four scales reads, "I think I'm a good reader" (Henk et al., 2013, pp. 313-314). To develop the RSPS2, the researchers first worked with 60 seventh and eighth-grade students with heterogeneous reading abilities to conduct individual structured interviews to assist in the design of the instrument. Next, a population of 56 graduate students in reading was assembled to conduct a content review of the instrument for the purpose of revision. The instrument was then piloted with a population of 488 seventh and eighth-grade students. The researchers then used factor analysis on the data to determine how well the predicted scales emerged for each category. The instrument then underwent another revision before final evaluation with an additional 2,542 students in grades 7-10 from a mix of urban, suburban, and rural school districts. The researchers then conducted reliability analyses, which indicated scale alphas ranging from 0.87-0.95, with all items contributing to the overall scale reliability. A second factor analysis followed to validate the existence of each of the expected categories. In each instance when researchers worked with seventh and eighth-grade students, they conducted observations and gathered field notes in order to gather information about students' observable behaviors while using the instrument and the length of time it took students to complete it. Finally, the researchers conducted a case study of the RSPS2 instrument and its use with one eighth grade language arts class to determine to what extent the instrument was useful in providing relevant information about students' reader self-

perceptions to the teacher. Similarly to the leveled-reading assessment, the pretest RSPS2 survey was administered to students in the first week of November 2019, and the posttest was administered in the first week of February 2020.

### **Qualitative Data**

Analysis of the quantitative data attempted to answer questions about the impact of both instructional strategies on students' reading comprehension and self-perceptions as readers. An equally important focus of the study was to discover how the differences between the two methods of instruction impacted teacher self-efficacy, which may inform teachers' pedagogy in the future. Use of an established protocol to guide classroom observations yielded a narrative response from the observer, the researcher. The triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data allowed for deeper analysis of context as well as the observer's personal interpretation of the experience (Marshall & Rossman, 2016, p. 101).

**Danielson Observation Guide for Workshop:** Each of the treatment-intervention group teachers were evaluated with the 180 Days Classroom Observation Protocol, an observation checklist excerpted from the *Danielson Observation Guide for Workshop*, a collaborative project between Lucy Calkins and Charlotte Danielson (Teachers College Reading and Writing Project, 2014). Treatment/intervention group teachers received one formal full-period observation lasting 41 minutes and two additional informal observations lasting eight to ten minutes each. They received feedback guided by the protocol either directly from the researcher or through an in-district administrative colleague. Additional biweekly informal observations of teachers and students in both groups allowed the researcher to examine teacher and student

interactions for any recurring patterns of behavior related to teachers' instructional stratagems (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). In this process, the researcher was able to ensure teachers' compliance with the agreed-upon instructional approach. In sum, each treatment/intervention group teacher received approximately 60 minutes of classroom observation with the assistance of the 180 Days Classroom Observation Protocol, and teachers in both groups were informally observed for an additional 10-20 minutes each month. Classroom observations yielded data useful to understand each teacher's approach to either intensive or extensive literature instruction.

**Semi-Structured Interviews:** Semi-structured interviews of teachers were used at the beginning and the end of the study as an additional method of qualitative data collection (see Table 3.4). Patton (as cited in Marshall & Rossman, 2014) categorizes interviews in three ways: informal and conversational, the guide or topical approach, or the standardized open-ended interview. Prior to the onset of the study, the researcher had already engaged teachers and students in various informal and conversational interviews, or those that are, as described by Marshall and Rossman (2014), interviews that "take place on-the-spot, as casual conversations are entered into with individuals and/or small groups" (p. 150). Using information gathered from these interviews in combination with relevant theory from the literature, the researcher developed a small schedule of guide/topical approach questions to direct the interviewee's line of thinking while also creating an opportunity for the interviewee to raise any issues of importance within the topic areas. Kember (2000) notes this approach provides opportunities for interviewees to raise their own issues and concerns. The researcher piloted the questions with teachers and students not involved in the study, which was done to examine the relevance of the

questions with a close population (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). Recorded answers were examined to determine that they were thematically connected to the question's intent, and feedback was used to make revisions generalized interview protocol will allow the researcher to explore the content and structure of teachers' personal visions, related goals, and circumstances under which personal visions are developed (Herr & Anderson, 2015).

**Table 3.4**

*Semi-structured interview protocol*

Questions for Teachers (1 <sup>st</sup> Interview)	Questions for Teachers (2 <sup>nd</sup> Interview)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Why did you want to become a secondary English teacher?</li> <li>• Think back to when you started your career to the present day. What factors have most influenced your teaching (ie: pre-service teacher programs, continuing education, work with colleagues, professional development, State initiatives, etc.)</li> <li>• Why do you want to participate in this study?</li> <li>• What questions or concerns do you have about the implementation of this pedagogical shift?</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• To what extent do you believe that the implementation of the pedagogical shift was successful?</li> <li>• To what extent has your participation in this study influenced your teaching for the better?</li> <li>• In your opinion, what are the strengths and weaknesses of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model?</li> <li>• Will you continue teaching this way for the foreseeable future? If not, what will you change?</li> </ul>

The initial interview was an ethnographic approach to understanding each teacher's lived experience in the secondary English classroom (Marshall & Rossman, 2016, p.152). The first question from the sought to gain information about each teacher's personal background and interest in becoming a teacher of secondary English. Subsequent questions from the initial interview were designed to elicit information about



specific factors that inform their practice and pedagogy, understand why the teachers wanted to participate in the study, and understand the questions and concerns teachers had about initiating a pedagogical shift to Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) model of workshop-based instruction. The second interview was conducted after twenty weeks of instruction had passed. Here, the researcher sought to gather phenomenological data about the teachers' perceptions of the model's success. The final question asked teachers to reflect on their instructional practice moving forward, specifically in regard to their planned use of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based instruction in the future.

### **Treatment/Intervention**

Throughout the first semester of the 2019-2020 academic year, two groups of students received two distinct approaches to teaching literature. The treatment/intervention group received instruction in alignment with the model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction presented by Gallagher and Kittle (2018) in the chapter entitled "Map a year of reading" of their professional text *180 Days: Two Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents*. This model of instruction represents a significant pedagogical shift from the traditional model used by most teachers in the school district, which can be classified as mostly intensive methods of teaching literature with primary use of teacher-selected whole-class texts. Students in the treatment/intervention group were engaged in extensive reading instruction where they had choice in approximately 75% of what literature they read by means of free-choice/independent reading or Book Clubs. The traditional model is detailed in Chapter 1

of this text, but significant differences between the two pedagogies are delineated in Table 3.5.

In Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) model, the use of free-choice/independent reading at the beginning of the school year is intended to help students develop as readers by selecting books of interest, experimenting with strategies to manage reading distractions, practicing meaning-making strategies, and receiving individualized instruction through student-teacher conferences (p.49). Book Clubs, similarly to literature circles, are social learning constructs designed to help students engage in discourse about a common text read in small groups (Heineke, 2014). Finally, a teacher-selected whole-class text is introduced later in the semester after students have developed skills and competencies for authentic reading (Gallagher & Kittle, 2018, p.63-64).

**Table 3.5***Pedagogical Models*

	<b>Treatment Group</b>	<b>Control Group</b>
Lesson Design	Reader/Writer Workshop Template	Existing District Template for Full-period Lesson
Curricular Frame	Documented in the professional text <i>180 Days: Two Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents</i> (Gallagher and Kittle, 2018) and in supplementary resources posted on the publisher’s website.	Documented in district-generated curriculum writing projects commissioned after the implementation of the Common Core State Standards
Use of Literature (20 weeks)	Book Clubs (6 weeks)  Free-Choice/Independent Reading (11 weeks)  Teacher-Selected Whole-Class Text selected from Grade-Level Canon (3 weeks)	Teacher-Selected Whole-Class Texts selected from Grade-Level Canon (20 weeks)
Daily Lesson Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Book Talk</li> <li>• Independent Reading and/or Writing</li> <li>• Mini-Lesson (10 minutes)</li> <li>• Independent Writing Practice</li> <li>• Sharing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Anticipatory Set or “Do Now” activity</li> <li>• Direct Instruction (20+ minutes)</li> <li>• Guided/Independent Practice</li> <li>• Summary/Closure</li> </ul>
Reading Accountability Assessments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reading Rate Tracking Tool</li> <li>• Teacher/Student Conferences</li> <li>• Writing in Reader’s Notebook</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Quizzes and Tests               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ multiple-choice</li> <li>○ short constructed response (SCR)</li> <li>○ extended constructed response (ECR)</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Text-Analysis essays with teacher-generated prompts</li> </ul>
Reading Comprehension /Skills Assessments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher/Student Conferences</li> <li>• Creative Projects and/or Presentations</li> <li>• Writing in Reader’s Notebook</li> <li>• Formal and informal writing assignments               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Narrative</li> <li>○ Expository</li> <li>○ Persuasive</li> <li>○ Reflection</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Creative Projects and/or Presentations</li> <li>• Formal and informal writing assignments               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Expository</li> <li>○ Persuasive</li> <li>○ Reflection</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Spelling and vocabulary quizzes</li> </ul>

As suggested by Cook (1998), teachers who volunteered to implement the pedagogical shift needed to find balance between following the framework of the model and becoming bound by its limitations. Though some of the teachers in the treatment/intervention group had experimented with the use of workshop-based extensive reading instruction with previous cohorts, the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) approach was different because it articulated a curricular frame for 40 weeks of instruction and a suggested daily lesson structure (noted in Figure 2) that previous professional texts on the subject have not. The challenges this presented, for veteran teachers especially, are presented in the analysis of the semi-structured interviews conducted at the beginning and at the end of the study.

**Figure 2**

*Suggested Daily Lesson Structure*

<i>Structure of a Typical Day</i> (41 minute periods)	
2 minutes	<b>Book Talk</b> (teacher led or student led)
8-10 minutes	<b>Time to Read</b> (with or without teacher conferences)
5 minutes	<b>Time to Write</b> (with or without teacher conferences)
10 minutes	<b>Mini-lesson</b> <i>Teaching, modeling, sharing strategies</i>
10-15 minutes	<b>Create:</b> Time to work on an evolving draft
2 minutes	<b>Share:</b> Debrief / share beautiful words

In a personal interview with Penny Kittle conducted in August of 2019, the researcher inquired about the intended rigidity of the structure detailed above. Kittle remarked that, though not so indicated in *180 Days*, the structure should be flexible based on the day-to-day needs of the teachers and the students. Some days teachers will devote

more time to independent reading and conferences, and other days teachers will devote more time to writing or sharing (P. Kittle, personal communication, August 22, 2019).

The researcher anticipated that teachers in the treatment group, regardless of past experiences with workshop-based extensive reading instruction, would need to have both the freedom to follow their own pathways and to have their work identified within the methodology. To support this, teachers in the treatment/intervention group were scheduled for three group professional development meetings with the researcher. The first occurred during the district's Superintendent Conference Day on August 28, 2019, before the academic year began, and the others were spread out over the course of the twenty weeks of implementation. Table 3.6 outlines the topics of each group professional development session, with each of these discussions leading to anticipated systematic and self-critical application by each teacher with the assistance of the researcher.

**Table 3.6***Group Professional Development Meetings*

<b>Meeting</b>	<b>Topic : Timeline</b>	<b>Discussions</b>
1	Planning and Preparation: <i>August 28, 2019</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Define curricular expectations <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>○ Review curricular frame, daily lesson structure, and lesson design</li> <li>○ Exemplar lesson “The First Day of School”</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Discuss logistics of the first five weeks</li> <li>• Establish instructional coaching schedule</li> <li>• Examine sample assessments</li> <li>• Collegial sharing and co-planning</li> </ul>
2	Curriculum Sharing: <i>October 15, 2019</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reflection – Questions/Comments/Concerns</li> <li>• Establish Goals for the next five weeks</li> <li>• Teacher Book Talks</li> <li>• Collegial sharing and co-planning</li> </ul>
3	Teaching the Whole-Class Novel: <i>November 5, 2019</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reflection – Questions/Comments/Concerns</li> <li>• Establish Goals for the next five weeks</li> <li>• Review Gallagher and Kittle (2018) guidelines for selecting and planning for the teaching of a whole-class novel</li> <li>• Researcher models a mini-lesson for teaching a whole-class novel</li> <li>• Collegial sharing and co-planning</li> </ul>

**Procedures for Collecting Data****Quantitative Data**

Students in both the control group and the treatment group received the assessments used to measure academic achievement and reader self-perceptions. The two instruments used in pretest posttest analysis of student data were either implemented by the teacher of record or by the researcher herself. To mitigate any concerns about treatment validity, teachers who administered the assessments without the researcher

present used a script to guide their talking points for student instructions. The researcher then collected and analyzed assessment data.

### **Qualitative Data**

The use of various data collection methods allowed the researcher to assess the strengths and challenges of each to determine to what extent each method provides “good, rich data” to respond to the research questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). The researcher collected data through classroom observation and semi-structured interview protocols, and an analysis of curriculum and lesson plans was used as a means of treatment fidelity check. Data was collected, organized, and assigned theory-generated codes to connect this study to the literature.

Interviews of the treatment/intervention group teachers were conducted individually, except for the tenth-grade special education collaborative co-teachers who were interviewed together. The researcher recorded the interviews digitally and transcribed the interviews, verbatim, on a word processor before deleting the audio files. The transcriptions were then shared with the interviewees for the purpose of member checking. The researcher then examined the interview transcripts alongside the relevant literature for emergent patterns and themes. Analysis of the data was guided by the conceptual framework, seeking to reveal to what extent teachers’ use of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model impacted their self-efficacy as effective teachers of English (Bandura, 1994; Marshall & Rossman, 2016).

Data gathered through classroom observations were examined in the context of Gallagher and Kittle’s (2018) narrative details about classroom environment, including

student engagement, within their set model of workshop-based instruction to generate a series of performance indicators that align with the conceptual framework.

The curriculum used in the pedagogical shift was adopted or adapted from Gallagher & Kittle's (2018) professional text, either by the researcher or by the teachers with support from the researcher, within the context of the action research frame. To assist in this process, the researcher created a password-protected website for teachers in the treatment/intervention group to assist in collegial sharing, co-planning and instructional coaching. Some of these lessons were demonstrated in the November 5, 2019 group meeting. Further, one of the teachers in the group created a Google Classroom for fellow participants to engage in ongoing communication to share lesson plans and ideas. To ensure that the treatment was implemented in the intended manner, the researcher scheduled regular informal classroom observations and offered unlimited, on-demand instructional coaching sessions with teachers. When asked, the researcher reviewed each teacher's curriculum, lesson plans, and selected materials to ensure that all were in compliance with the model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction described in the text.

### **Research Ethics**

As a tenured administrator in the school district, the researcher had unrestricted access to the site. Further, the district's central administration supported the researcher's proposal to conduct the study because of its relevance to instructional best practice. To elicit voluntary participation for the study, the researcher described the plan for the study to all English language arts teachers districtwide during regular building-level department meetings. Teachers who expressed interest in learning more about the Gallagher and



Kittle (2018) instructional approach were invited to attend a free professional development workshop during the school day to ensure that each potential participant gained the pertinent information needed to make an informed decision regarding voluntary participation. Once teachers had committed to participating in the study, participant confidentiality and obtain informed consent, as per the guidelines of the St. John's University Institutional Review Board, was gathered from teachers and their students [see Appendix A]. Teachers were not compensated for their participation; however, their participation benefitted teachers through professional development, collegial sharing and co-planning, and ongoing reflection of their own practice. As noted by Kember (2000), "There can be an enduring impact as many learn to value reflecting upon their own teaching as a scholarly activity and acquire the classroom research skills to monitor regularly the quality of learning of their students" (p. 29).

Primary ethical issues that arise with the collection of qualitative data center on the dynamics of power and influence among the participants in the study; therefore, the researcher maintained acute awareness of these dynamics and engaged skillful facilitation of the process (Marshall & Rossman, 2016). For example, since teachers in both groups worked very closely together and met in regularly-scheduled department meetings, it was important to ensure that the work of the teachers in the treatment/intervention group is not celebrated, praised, or glorified by the researcher herself or by any other school administrator as not to unduly influence the other teachers in the study.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter described the research methodology that was used to answer the research questions. Details of the research design, samples, instrumentation, and

treatment/intervention were provided. Findings from data collection and analysis will be reported in Chapter 4 to follow.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Results**

#### **Introduction**

The purpose of the study was to use a quasi-experimental research approach supplemented by qualitative data on instructional context to describe the impact that the implementation of one semester of Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) set model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction has on secondary English language arts students and their teachers in one suburban central high school district in New York State. The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reading comprehension as measured by an assessment?
2. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reader self-perceptions as measured by the RSPS2?
3. To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching literature as measured by semi-structured interviews and a classroom observation protocol modified from the Danielson framework ("The Intersection," 2014)?

Because the answers to the first two research questions depend on students' completion of pretests and posttests of both assessments, the sample size varies for each. In some instances, assessments were not scored because the student selected the same response for each of the items, was absent the day the assessment was given, or didn't complete the assessment. The samples presented in the tables below reflect successful pairings of pretests and posttests per participant for both the leveled-reading assessment and the RSPS2.

**Table 4.1**

*Number and Percentage of Reading Assessment Participants*

Reading Assessment Participants	8 <sup>th</sup> Grade		9 <sup>th</sup> Grade		10 <sup>th</sup> Grade		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Treatment/Intervention	39	40.6	44	45.8	13	13.5	<b>96</b>	<b>71.1</b>
Control Group	6	15.3	28	71.8	5	12.8	<b>39</b>	<b>28.9</b>
Total	45	33.3	72	53.3	18	13.3	<b>135</b>	<b>100</b>

**Table 4.2**

*Number and Percentage of RSPS2 Participants*

RSPS2 Participants	8 <sup>th</sup> Grade		9 <sup>th</sup> Grade		10 <sup>th</sup> Grade		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Treatment/Intervention	34	38.2	41	46.1	14	15.7	<b>89</b>	<b>67.9</b>
Control Group	12	28.6	30	71.4	0	0	<b>42</b>	<b>32.1</b>
Total	46	35.1	71	54.2	14	10.7	<b>131</b>	<b>100</b>

## Quantitative Results for Research Question 1

The first research question asked: To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reading comprehension as measured by an assessment?

The leveled-reading assessment contained eighteen multiple choice questions and twelve constructed response questions. Due concerns about threats to validity that will be explained more fully in Chapter 5, the researcher decided to score only the multiple choice component of the pretests and posttests. Because many students did not have enough time to finish the exam, a variable was added to record whether the exam was completed. Descriptive statistics for the pretest and posttest are provided in the tables below.

**Table 4.3**

*Descriptive Statistics Reading Comprehension Assessment*

Descriptive Statistics				
	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Reading Pretest Score	Control	77.9844	20.80273	39
	Treatment	84.7082	17.61744	96
	Total	82.7658	18.76484	135
Reading Posttest Score	Control	81.2103	13.07225	39
	Treatment	83.5699	16.71772	96
	Total	82.8882	15.74014	135

As shown in Table 4.3, the mean score on the pretest for all students was 82.77 and the mean score on the posttest was 82.89. A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to determine if there was an overall significant difference between the means at different time points and between the groups. As noted in Table 4.4 below, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction determined that the mean assessment scores did not differ significantly between the time points ( $F(1, 133) = 2.142, p = .146$ ). According to this model, there is no statistically significant difference between student score gains on the leveled-reading assessment based on the group to which they were assigned.

**Table 4.4**

*Results Obtained from Repeated Measures ANOVA of Pretest Posttest Leveled-Reading Assessment*

<b>Tests of Within-Subjects Effects</b>							
Measure: Time							
Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
ReadingTest	Sphericity Assumed	60.430	1	60.430	.490	.485	.004
	Greenhouse-Geisser	60.430	1.000	60.430	.490	.485	.004
ReadingTest * Group	Sphericity Assumed	264.112	1	264.112	2.142	.146	.016
	Greenhouse-Geisser	264.112	1.000	264.112	2.142	.146	.016
Error(ReadingTest)	Sphericity Assumed	16396.534	133	123.282			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	16396.534	133.000	123.282			

## Quantitative Results for Research Question 2

The second research question asked: To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact middle and high school students' reader self-perceptions as measured by the RSPS2?

The RSPS2 assessment (Henk et al., 2013) measures students' reader self-perceptions with 47 Likert-type survey items related to four scales: Progress (PR), Observational Comparison (OC), Social Feedback (SF), and Physiological States (PS). Students are asked to evaluate their reading performance in the context of the four scales. Item 25, which asks students whether or not "I think I am a good reader," is not a part of the aforementioned scales and is considered a general item (p. 313).

**Table 4.5**

*Descriptive Statistics for the RSPS2 Progress (PR) Scale*

Descriptive Statistics				
Group		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
pretest PR	Control	57.88	9.261	42
	Treatment	64.26	8.764	89
	Total	62.21	9.379	131
posttest PR	Control	58.24	11.429	42
	Treatment	63.43	9.882	89
	Total	61.76	10.640	131

**Table 4.6***Descriptive Statistics: RSPS2 Observational Comparison (OC) Scale*

Descriptive Statistics				
Group		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
pretest OC	Control	28.21	6.194	42
	Treatment	30.89	5.354	89
	Total	30.03	5.751	131
posttest OC	Control	28.14	6.381	42
	Treatment	31.85	5.995	89
	Total	30.66	6.340	131

**Table 4.7***Descriptive Statistics: RSPS2 Social Feedback (SF) Scale*

Descriptive Statistics				
Group		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
pretest SF	Control	28.19	4.174	42
	Treatment	30.49	4.585	89
	Total	29.76	4.571	131
posttest SF	Control	28.38	5.113	42
	Treatment	31.11	4.953	89
	Total	30.24	5.147	131



**Table 4.8***Descriptive Statistics: RSPS2 Physiological States (PS) Scale*

<b>Descriptive Statistics</b>				
Group		Mean	Std. Deviation	N
pretest PS	Control	38.74	9.229	42
	Treatment	44.10	10.750	89
	Total	42.38	10.555	131
posttest PS	Control	38.07	10.630	42
	Treatment	43.31	10.991	89
	Total	41.63	11.111	131

Tables 4.6-4.8 above provide mean scores for pretest posttest survey items related to the four scales of the RSPS2: Progress (PR), Observational Comparison (OC), Social Feedback (SF), and Physiological States (PS). In each instance, the mean scores for the treatment-intervention group were higher than the control group for both pretest and posttest. Table 4.9 below provides the mean scores of students' responses in both administrations of the RSPS2. Repeated measures ANOVA with Greenhouse-Geisser corrections determined that there was not a statistically significant difference for any of the scaled components of the RSPS2 assessment based on the group to which they were assigned.

**Table 4.9**

*Summary of Results Obtained from T-Test and Repeated Measures ANOVA Output of Tests of Within-Subjects Effects of All Scaled Components of the RSPS2 for the Pretest Posttest*

<b>Paired Samples Statistics</b>						
		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (Greenhouse-Geisser correction)
Pair 1	pretest PR	62.21	131	9.379	.819	$p = .646$
	posttest PR	61.76	131	10.640	.930	
Pair 2	pretest OC	30.03	131	5.751	.502	$p = .177$
	posttest OC	30.66	131	6.340	.554	
Pair 3	pretest SF	29.76	131	4.571	.399	$p = .506$
	posttest SF	30.24	131	5.147	.450	
Pair 4	pretest PS	42.38	131	10.555	.922	$p = .925$
	posttest PS	41.63	131	11.111	.971	
Pair 5	pre RSPS2 no. 25	3.88	131	.920	.080	$p = .606$
	post RSPS2 no. 25	3.78	131	1.032	.090	

### **Qualitative Results for Research Question 3**

The third research question asked: To what extent does implementation of a pedagogical shift from teachers' primary use of intensive instruction with whole-class texts to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction impact the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching literature as measured by semi-structured interviews and a classroom observation protocol modified from the Danielson framework ("The Intersection," 2014)?

### ***Interview I***

The first round of treatment/intervention group teacher interviews were conducted in part to gauge teachers' perceptions about use of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based instruction as the study commenced. Teachers had received copies of the text to peruse over the summer, and the first group meeting was held. Teachers had a few weeks to get started with teaching in the model prior to their first scheduled interview.

Table 4.10 below provides background information about the teachers who volunteered to participate in this research study in the treatment/intervention group. This information was helpful in guiding the researcher's analysis of their interviews and classroom observations. The initial questions were designed to establish rapport and gain some background information on teachers' motivations to attempt a new approach to their teaching of literature. Further, the interview itself was an opportunity for the researcher to gain a more complete understanding about the targeted professional development teachers would need to support their instruction during the study.

**Table 4.10**

*Summary of Treatment/Intervention Group Teachers' Ethnographic Responses*

<b>Teacher &amp; Grade Level</b>		<b>Interest in Teaching English</b>	<b>Reason(s) for Participating in the Study</b>
Teacher A	10	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interest in the profession stemming from childhood</li> <li>• Love of reading</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feelings of stagnancy</li> <li>• Frustrated by students' apparent apathy for reading</li> </ul>
Teacher B		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Desire for a stable career</li> <li>• Love of reading</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Desire to try something new</li> <li>• Interest in helping a colleague</li> </ul>
Teacher C	9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Inspired by a former teacher</li> <li>• Love of reading</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feelings of stagnancy</li> <li>• Good feedback from prior experimentation with workshop-based instruction</li> </ul>
Teacher D	9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interest in the profession stemming from childhood</li> <li>• Love of reading</li> </ul>	Good feedback from prior experimentation with workshop-based instruction
Teacher E	8	Inspired by a former teacher	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feelings of stagnancy</li> <li>• Frustrated by students' apparent apathy for reading</li> </ul>
Teacher F	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Desire for a stable career</li> <li>• Inspired by a former teacher</li> </ul>	Feelings of stagnancy
Teacher G	8	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Desire for a stable career</li> <li>• Love of reading</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feelings of stagnancy</li> <li>• Frustrated by students' apparent apathy for reading</li> </ul>

The 10<sup>th</sup> grade co-teachers were interviewed together both times. All others were interviewed individually. Of the seven participants, five cited their own love of reading as motivating factor for entering the profession. Three teachers reported feeling inspired by a former English teacher. Three teachers also noted that their desire for a stable career with a good salary and benefits was a factor as well.

While there was no single unifying factor that motivated the teachers to participate in the study, the most frequently cited reason was a feeling of stagnancy in their instructional approach coupled with a frustration with students' apparent apathy for reading. Teacher G said the following about these two conjoined sentiments: "I just wanted to kind of refresh what I'm doing. I feel that I kind of reinvent the wheel every

year anyway, but I'm reinventing the same wheel. So I guess I wanted to invent something else. And it makes a lot more sense to get people to love something by letting them discover it in their own way instead of, you know, force feeding it to them. And my saying year after year, 'No, you should love Edgar Allan Poe,' doesn't necessarily mean that they're going to love Edgar Allan Poe." Teacher F was explicit in her own reason for wanting to participate in the study in remarks that she provided in her follow-up interview. She said, "I needed a refresher, point blank. Initially it was a very selfish reason... Positively or, in turn, it has trickled down to the kids, so it's really a win-win for everybody ...but it started with my own personal interest... I needed something."

Many of these teachers indicated that the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based instruction could be an approach that would help students discover or re-discover a love of reading that had been dormant for a long time. At the same time, the teachers' statements revealed the innate hope for their own improved self-efficacy in the process.

Prior to conducting the first interview, the researcher explained how the 180 Days Observation Protocol modified from the Danielson framework ("The Intersection," 2014) would be used in teacher observations [see Appendix C]. Teachers understood that, for the purpose of this study, the observer would be looking specifically at how teachers establish their classroom environment to support workshop-based instruction. This includes shifting from teacher-centered to student-centered instruction, experimenting with flexible seating, and creating classroom lending libraries. This was presented, in part, to help frame the discussion of how physical changes to the classrooms may be needed to support the pedagogical shift.

A textual analysis of the first interview transcripts was conducted with the assistance of QSR International NVivo 12 software. A word frequency query was used to locate and identify broadly-defined topics through emergent patterns and themes. These topics were then categorized as hopes, concerns, and core beliefs. For the purpose of this evaluation, “hopes” is best defined as what teachers envisioned they could gain from implementing the pedagogical shift, either for themselves or for their students; “concerns” is best defined as elements of the pedagogical shift that were still questionable or unclear to teachers; and “core beliefs” is best defined as the teachers’ mental models about students and instruction.

A summary of teachers’ responses, categorized and ranked by frequency, is presented in Table 4.11. Direct quotes and paraphrases from the interview transcripts have been supplied to provide context of sentiments in each category, which are often inter-related despite having been assigned to one of three discrete categories for the purpose of analysis.

**Table 4.11***Teachers' Perceptions in the Pedagogical Shift*

<b>Topic</b>	<b>Category</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
Frustrations with low SMR / perceived apathy or disengagement	Core Belief	8
Relinquishing teacher control/ stepping out of comfort zone	Concern	7
Excitement for a new instructional approach	Hope	5
Validity/plausibility of the model	Concern	5
Desire to benefit kids	Hope	4
Desire to improve teaching craft	Hope	4
Trust in researcher's leadership/ability	Core Belief	4
Logistics of structure, schedule, instructional timeline	Concern	3
Importance of student choice	Core Belief	3
How to assess students in this model	Concern	2
Interest in continual learning	Core Belief	2
Interest in collaboration with colleagues during the study	Hope	2
Logistics, materials or lesson planning	Concern	2
Prior past experience with workshop-based instruction	Hope	2

**Hope.** Prior to implementation of the pedagogical shift, many of the teachers reported feeling a sense of stagnancy in their instructional practice. Four of the seven

teachers interviewed cited that they hoped the pedagogical shift would benefit their students while helping them improve their teaching craft at the same time. For many, the idea of using a new instructional approach with the support of district administration was exciting. To this, Teacher G remarked, “I just wanted something new and to refresh what I was doing, and I wanted to help kids actually like to learn to read, or actually learn to like to read...and just to do something new. And I figured, if you’re invested in it, then this is a good time for me to experiment with it...”

In general, the teachers hoped that incorporating choice reading in this model would do more to help motivate students to engage in authentic reading practices. This is illustrated through Teacher E’s discussion about her frustration with her prior instructional approach: “We’re not doing [students] any favors, at the high school and beyond, because they are not really being challenged to think in different ways. They’re not expanding their horizons by reading, they’re not expanding their vocabularies by reading. So what made me want to participate in this was that... it was exciting. Maybe this is something better; maybe this is something new.”

**Concern.** While teachers were excited about trying a new instructional approach, the most frequently stated concerns related to relinquishing teacher control to facilitate more student driven-learning experiences. Teacher F addressed concerns that she had about classroom management, stating, “I’m worried about sitting at tables and starting the year with what feels like a free-for-all.” Teacher F also revealed discomfort about what she had perceived to be a lack of general organization and structure in the model itself. She added, “[I am] feeling like there [is] no structure. I feel like I have structure when I have these, like, organized units for whole-class novels.”



Some teachers questioned the overall validity of Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) instructional approach given the lack of published research about its impact on students' academic success. Teacher D, one of the ninth-grade teachers who had prior experience with workshop-based instruction in the past, shared the following about that experience and about why she wanted to participate in this study: "I liked doing it. I thought that my students enjoyed it, but I wanted to make sure that there was something past the enjoyment... that there was learning going on. Yes, there is always a validity to finding a piece of text and finding something that you truly enjoy and engaging students in reading. Being a reading teacher and being an English teacher, and knowing kind of both sides of that... like how important choice reading is... to kind of see the concrete evidence at the end. 'Yes! This is the concrete evidence. We've been saying forever that choice reading is important, and now here's the evidence to back it up and support it.'"

**Core Belief.** All of the treatment/intervention group teachers reported feeling frustrated with the apparent lack of motivation for reading among their students. They reported that students appeared apathetic for reading, or they only pretended to complete assignments by copying work from their peers. To illustrate this, Teacher E remarked, "I can say with confidence that there were some kids in my class last year that didn't read anything. Maybe they listened while we read some pages, [but] I think there are plenty of kids who didn't read a single book last year. They faked it." Teacher A and Teacher B addressed this through sharing details of the reflective conversations they had in co-planning. Teacher A said, "We were actually talking lot about it over the past couple of years - how our students just didn't even have any remote, like, passion for reading

anymore. And it's become like this chore...and they get assigned these books in school that they don't like, that they don't deem relevant, that they don't even read...”

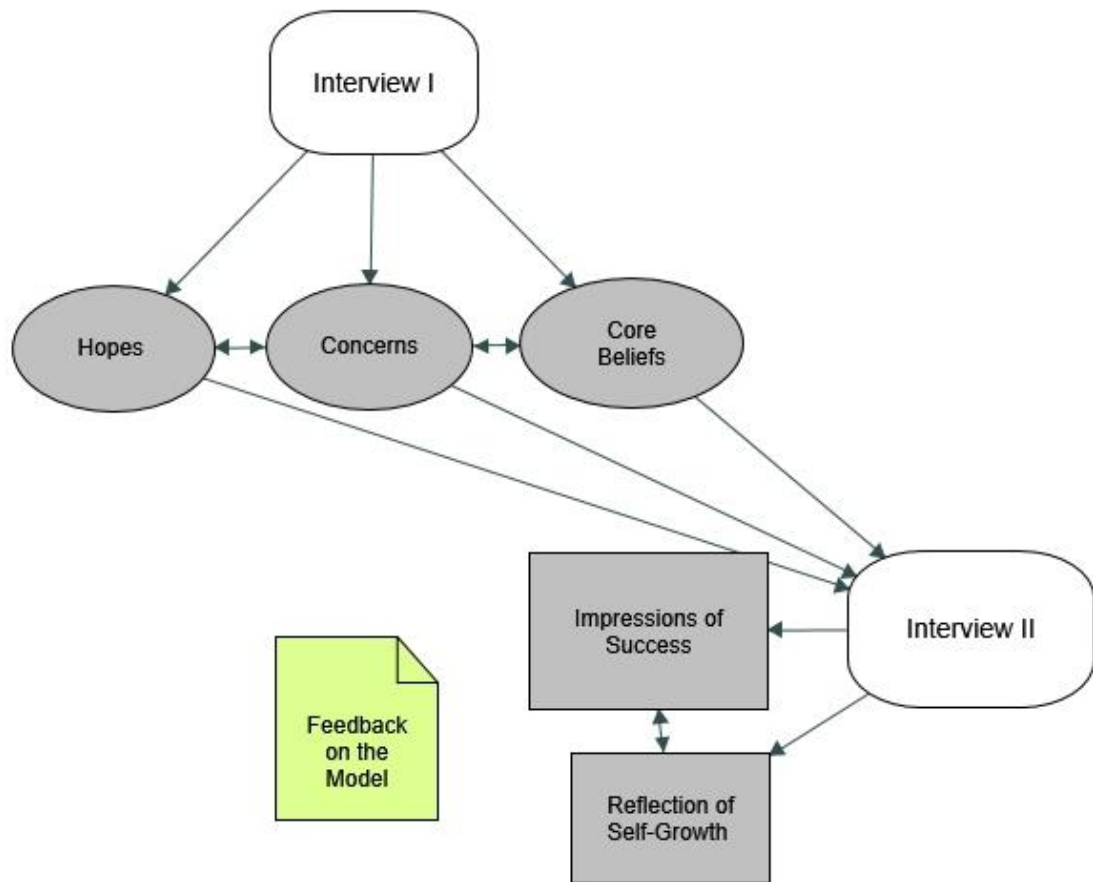
Three of the teachers who had previously experimented with workshop-based instruction noted their belief in student choice as an important factor in students’ motivation to read. To this, Teacher C remarked, “I tried independent reading and I really liked it. My kids came in wanting to read, but I felt like last year I didn’t really do it justice.” Four of the seven teachers did mention their faith in the researcher’s leadership in the process of adopting the Gallagher & Kittle (2018) model, specifically through offering professional development to ensure that the model would be applied correctly.

### ***Interview II***

A second round of interviews was conducted at the end of the fall semester. A textual analysis of the second interview transcripts was conducted with the assistance of QSR International NVivo 12 software. Once again, a word frequency query was used to locate and identify broadly-defined topics through emergent patterns and themes, and results were then compared with results from the first round of interviews to examine relationships. A synthesis of data from both suggested three themes: Teachers believed that the pedagogical shift yielded successful outcomes (Impressions of Success); Teachers felt a sense of personal improvement and self-growth in the process (Reflection of Self-Growth); and Teachers acknowledged that some aspects of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model need to be modified to better suit their students (Feedback about the Model). The progression of ideas from the first to the second interview are represented graphically in Figure 3 below.

**Figure 3**

*Progression of Ideas Yielding Concluding Themes in the Interview Process.*



***Impressions of Success.*** At the time of the first interview, teachers believed that students were not generally motivated to read. While they were excited about having an opportunity to practice a new instructional approach, they were also concerned about relinquishing control or stepping out of their comfort zone.

In the second interview, teachers were asked to reflect on to what extent they believed that the implementation of the pedagogical shift was successful in their

classrooms. All teachers remarked that the shift was successful for their students in that it appeared to improve their motivation for reading by positively affecting their engagement with books. Teacher G stated, “I think it was successful in that [the] kids actually read, the kids were invested in reading. They were reading multiple books, they were... finishing the books, not like fake reading I know that they had been doing in the past.”

Some teachers spoke to the specific success they found with the implementation of Book Clubs. Teacher A remarked on how she and Teacher B refer to their Book Club groups as families, and students forged friendships with classmates that teachers may not have expected otherwise. She then added, “We have two kids that you would never in a million years think they would ever socialize, and the two of them loved *Refugee*....and now I'm like ‘look at them!’ You know, there’s just like this little connection now, and I don’t know that it would've happened any other way, truthfully.” Teacher F noted that what she thought was most successful about the use of Book Clubs was how students were “connecting to their peers, with each other - so there was a lot of talking amongst each other about what they're reading, and they would get excited because they wanted to read what their friends were reading, or they would want to read the same books at the same time.”

Teachers also frequently remarked on the changes in student behavior observed through engagement with reading, notably to what extent students learned how to select appropriate texts and demonstrated their motivation to read. Teacher C stated that she knew that her students “...embraced the *180 Days* model [because] they are reading and talking about their books. They want to read for the majority of the period. They have

learned how to abandon books that they don't like, and they have expanded the genres that they are reading." Teacher D remarked that her definition of success was in "getting more students interested in reading and reigniting a spark that some of them had neglected." Teacher G spoke to the extent that students were eager to use class time for reading, remarking, "Sometimes they would say, 'Can we just read for the whole period?' which is like music to my ears."

***Reflection of Self-Growth.*** At the time of the first interview, teachers indicated feelings of stagnancy in their teaching. For many, the pedagogical shift was a chance for them to refresh their instructional practice by trying something new. Further, the opportunity to work closely with the researcher and colleagues in the treatment/intervention group provided formal and informal professional development as well as opportunities for collegial sharing and co-planning. Teachers A and B both remarked about how the instructional model made them feel as if they generated more creative lessons and classroom experiences for their students. Teacher D was explicit, "It has helped me to experiment with new ideas, reflect on what I have been doing and what I am currently doing, and allowed me to continue to hone my craft. I have learned so much and I am continuing to learn and question and adapt my teaching." Teacher F cited positive student feedback as her motivation to seek continual learning in workshop-based instruction, stating, "It's very rewarding when you're seeing the kids get excited about a subject that you yourself are naturally excited about, right? So that makes me want to do it more."

***Feedback about the Model.*** At the time of the first interview, teachers had questions and concerns about the plausibility of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model.

Most of these concerns were about the logistics of the model, including how and when to teach writing skills, how to assess student progress, and how to fit so many lesson transitions into a 41-minute class period. At the time of the second interview, most teachers had remarked on how the Structure of a Typical Day [Figure 2] was not feasible due to time limitations. The middle school teachers in particular discussed various management concerns that prevented quick and seamless transitions from lesson activity to lesson activity. After explaining how she needed to adjust for five additional minutes at the beginning and end of each class for non-teaching responsibilities, Teacher G stated the following about her heterogeneously-grouped 8<sup>th</sup> grade classes: “It doesn't matter how well organized you are as a teacher and how well the students know the routine ...there's no way I'm starting that class without having at least three students say, ‘I don't have a pencil,’ ‘I don't have paper,’ et cetera.” Teacher F discussed her concern about the lack of time scheduled for direct instruction each period, noting, “The ten-minute direct instruction is too little.” She added that, after she took some time to become used to the suggested structure, she made some adjustments that she felt better met the needs of her eighth-grade classes. She said, “there were some days that I need 30 minutes of direct instruction, and then maybe the next day there is no direct instruction at all.”

The teachers who particularly enjoyed using Book Clubs, namely Teachers A and B, stated that they think Book Clubs should come before free-choice/independent reading in this model of workshop-based instructions. The chief reason was that they were able to make better book recommendations to students only after they had the opportunity to get to know them, notably to gauge a greater understanding of their interests as well as their individual strengths and weaknesses as readers. To illustrate this, Teacher B stated, “You

don't always know how [a book] is going to resonate with anybody, and we don't know our kids too much in the beginning of the year... So maybe Book Clubs first is a good idea.”

Each of the teachers in the treatment/intervention group stated that they will continue to teach using Gallagher and Kittle’s (2018) set model of workshop-based instruction in the future, albeit with some accommodations for the needs of their specific student populations. Teachers A and B, for example, intend to begin the year with Book Clubs instead of free-choice/independent reading. Teacher G, stating, “if we have longer periods, I think that it might be easier” indicated her plans to work with her middle school teaching team to schedule blocked classes more frequently. Teacher C was explicit: “I will definitely use this model next year. I might start with a class read and then go into Independent Reading and then book clubs.”

### ***Summary of Qualitative Data from Teacher Interviews***

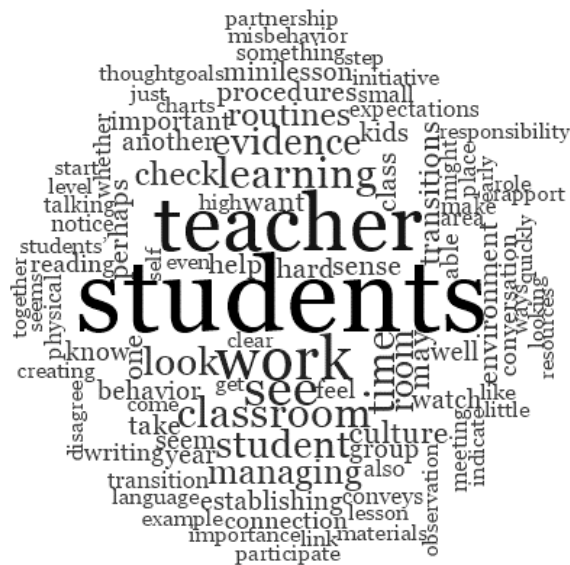
Teacher responses to the interview questions indicate that implementation of the pedagogical shift was successful in increasing students’ motivation to read. They indicated that the driving force behind students’ authentic engagement with text appeared to relate to having the ability to choose what they were reading for class and by providing time in class to read. The utilization of Book Clubs appeared to motivate students through combining engagement of reading and the social influence of peers. Though teachers indicated that they are interested in continuing with workshop-based instruction, many of them cited modifications to the approach that diverge from the specific curricular frame proposed by Gallagher and Kittle (2018).

### ***Teacher Observation Feedback using the 180 Days Observation Protocol***

A textual analysis of the performance indicators from the 180 Days Observation Protocol [Appendix C] was conducted with the assistance of QSR International NVivo 12 software. A word frequency query was used to locate and identify broadly-defined characteristics of the ideal workshop-based classroom learning environment. As suggested by the software-generated word cloud in Figure 4 below, the protocol guided the observer to gather evidence suggesting that classroom practices, and the lesson itself, focus more on the actions of the students rather than on the actions of the teacher.

**Figure 4**

*Word Cloud Analysis of the 180 Days Observation Protocol*



Each teacher in the treatment/intervention group was observed using the 180 Days Observation Protocol as a barometer for understanding to what extent implementation of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model was successful in the context of classroom culture.



Narrative content from these observations was manually coded into nodes, which were then organized into categories based on their frequency. Table 4.12 below summarizes how the data was interpreted and organized.

**Table 4.12**

*Four Categories in Teacher Observation Narrative Data*

<b>Student Engagement (Frequency = 44)</b>
<p>Evidence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Student attention, focus and compliance</li> <li>• Students actively participate in small and large group discussions</li> <li>• Opportunities for students to share insights with one another</li> <li>• Students participate in lesson activities</li> <li>• Students share their work</li> </ul>
<b>Student Routines (Frequency = 32)</b>
<p>Evidence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students know where things go</li> <li>• Students know what to do or what to expect next</li> <li>• Students share in responsibilities of classroom management or non-instructional duties</li> <li>• Students assist in facilitating smooth transitions</li> </ul>
<b>Student-Directed Action (Frequency = 30)</b>
<p>Evidence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students take initiative (actions, inquiries, discussion prompts)</li> <li>• Students assume leadership roles</li> <li>• Students assist other students</li> </ul>
<b>Physical Space (Frequency = 26)</b>
<p>Evidence:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organization of desks/tables is conducive to lesson activities</li> <li>• Teacher proximity is conducive to lesson activities</li> <li>• The space is tidy, warm, and inviting</li> <li>• Classroom décor demonstrates teachers' interest in students</li> <li>• Use of technology is appropriate to the lesson</li> </ul>

***Student Engagement.*** In all instances, teachers demonstrate that they have created and maintained a positive classroom culture. At the basic level, this is evident through students' attention, compliance, and willingness to participate in class discussion. In some instances, student behavior suggests a high amount of respect and rapport for one another and for their teachers. Most students demonstrated remarkable flexibility through various lesson transitions, and the most dynamic lessons tended to keep students from engaging in off-task behavior. Some middle school students occasionally struggled when transitioning into silent reading time. While many students appeared eager to read, some were observed looking around the room, whispering to a friend, or sitting with their unopen book. Middle school teachers were often observed using various classroom management techniques to subtly remind students what they should be doing in that time. In most instances, they were successful. Feedback reflecting this was noted in one teacher's observation narrative as follows: "Students, especially those with executive functioning difficulties, are likely to struggle in transitions. This is more so the case when students are transitioning from an interactive activity (ie: groupwork or direct instruction) to independent work (silent reading or writing)." In a follow-up discussion with the teacher, the researcher encouraged her to consider how behavioral scaffolds may be used to help ease these transitions and maximize the time students have to engage in the work.

***Student Routines.*** The district where the study was conducted allows students to bring their mobile phones to class and use them whenever appropriate in the context of instruction and with the permission of the teacher. In an effort to thwart student misuse of their devices, many teachers purchased hanging organizers for students to store their devices during class time so they do not become distracted by them. In some instances,

teachers asked students to put their devices in the hanging organizer only after they are observed misusing them. In one classroom, students were observed doing the following upon entering the room: deposit their mobile phone in the hanging organizer near the door, walk to the back of the room to retrieve their writing notebooks from a storage container, and sit down with their notebooks open before the bell rang to start class. After the bell rang, the teacher invited one student to the front of the classroom to give a book talk. The student anticipated this and was prepared. In a follow-up discussion with the teacher, the researcher learned that students had been practicing this routine since the beginning of the year, and it helped her to control any off-task behavior as she handles non-instructional duties at the beginning of the period.

***Student-Directed Action.*** Most of the classes observed had time built into the period for students to work in pairs or in small groups. Much of the student-directed action appeared to occur in times when they were scheduled to work collaboratively on a task, such as in having a Book Club meeting or in using a piece of text to practice a skill. In all instances when this occurred, teachers were seen circulating the space to check in on student groups as they worked. Occasionally teachers would pull up a chair and spend time facilitating discussion in the group, but most often the visits were supervisory in nature or purposed as formative checks for understanding.

In one class, a student arrived late as her peers were seated at tables working on a stations-learning activity. She appeared to seem confused as to where to go and what to do. The teacher was actively engaged elsewhere and did not appear to notice the student struggling to transition into the lesson in progress. The researcher then noticed one student working in a group stand up, walk over to the student, and invite her to join his

group of three at their table. The student was overheard explaining the activity's instructions to the latecomer and asking if she had any questions. This interaction occurred without the apparent awareness of the teacher. A few moments later, before she transitioned the class to the next activity, the teacher approached the latecomer to verify that she had successfully joined the lesson in progress.

***Physical Space.*** Almost all of the district's classrooms are shared by two or more teachers, and while efforts are made administratively to partner teachers who have similar teaching styles and physical setup needs, there are occasions when the classrooms are cluttered with extra items such as filing cabinets, organizing blocks, or bookshelves. In all but one instance, the physical setup of the room was conducive to supporting student-directed learning in a workshop model; desks or tables are arranged in such a way that allow students to move seamlessly in and out of groups, bookshelves house neatly-organized classroom lending libraries, and student work adorns the walls and chalkboards. One exception to this was in Teacher D's classroom. The teachers sharing that space made every effort to accommodate flexible seating structures in their classroom. Some desks were arranged in rows, two high top tables with two stools apiece were lined up along the back wall, and a long table with seven chairs was situated in another area of the room. Because one of the teachers sharing the room has a class of thirty students, abnormally large by typical standards, the student desks and tables were in very close proximity to one another. In the lesson that was observed, the treatment/intervention group teacher was attempting to conduct student conferences during silent reading time. Instead of inviting students to the front of the room to sit face-to-face near the teachers' desk, the teacher attempted to conduct brief conferences by

circulating the room and kneeling next to students working at their desks. The observer noticed that the teacher appeared to limit her interactions to students who were easy to approach in the cluttered space. In a follow-up meeting with the teacher, the researcher reflected on to what extent the physical space in the room is conducive to group activities required in a Book Clubs unit, to what extent the space allows her to circulate and check in with students as they work, and to what extent she is able to hold student-teacher conferences while students are engaged in independent reading or small group discussion. The feedback prompted the teacher to have a discussion with others who share the space, and improvements were initiated within a week.

## **Conclusion**

The instruments used in this mixed-methods comparative research study provided quantitative data from a leveled-reading assessment and the RSPS2 survey and qualitative data from teacher interviews and lesson observations. The pretest posttest design was used to quantify to what extent students' performance gains on both assessments would illustrate a cause-effect relationship. While students in the treatment/intervention group performed at consistently higher measures on both assessments, there was no statistically significant change from pretest to posttest scores for either group.

The interviews elicited data about the impact that the pedagogical shift had on teachers' perceptions of student engagement as well as on their own self-efficacy. Researcher-conducted classroom observations provided instructional context to explain to what extent the pedagogical shift impacted the classroom environment.

## Chapter 5

### Interpretation of Results

This mixed methods study utilized a quasi-experimental research approach supplemented by qualitative data on instructional context to describe the impact that the implementation of one semester of Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction has on secondary English language arts students and their teachers. The aforementioned model, detailed in the authors' collaboratively-written professional text, *180 Days: To Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents* is classified as extensive instruction because it compels teachers to prioritize volume of reading over reading closely in the belief that reading comprehension is dependent on fluency. This was tested against intensive approaches used by teachers in the control group, which includes use of close reading practice with primarily teacher-selected whole-class texts. Paired samples t tests and

According to the results of this study, the research questions were answered as follows:

1. Student performance on the leveled-reading assessment indicated that there was not a statistically-significant difference between the performance gains of students in either group over time; therefore, the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction is just as effective as traditional intensive methods of teaching literature in improving students' reading comprehension.
2. Student performance on the RSPS2 assessment indicated that there was not a statistically-significant difference between the performance gains of

students in either group over time; therefore, the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of extensive workshop-based instruction is just as effective as traditional intensive methods of teaching literature in improving students' reader self-perceptions.

3. Summary data from semi-structured teacher interviews and classroom observation data shows that teacher self-efficacy was positively impacted as a result of teachers' implementation of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction.

### **Relationship Between Results and Prior Research**

Though prior research examined and validated the effectiveness of intensive and extensive instructional approaches in the English Language Arts (Coryell, 1927; McConn, 2016), the present study attempted to validate a model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction that had not yet been addressed in the literature. The instructional model presented by Gallagher and Kittle (2018) in the chapter entitled "Map a year of reading" of their professional text *180 Days: Two Teachers and the Quest to Engage and Empower Adolescents* cannot merely be classified as extensive reading instruction because extensive reading instruction, on its own, does not account for the variable of student choice.

This point is exemplified by McConn (2016), who essentially conducted a replication of Coryell's (1927) study. For both, the method of teaching literature served as the independent variable; however, choice reading was ancillary. Regarding the use of extensive reading instruction as treatment, McConn (2016) noted, "All the pieces that the students read are noted for their literary quality, and the participants did not have a choice

in the reading selections” (p.178). In an examination of the effect of choice or no choice has on reading comprehension, treatment and control group participants did not differ on measures of cognitive performance (Flowerday & Schraw, 2003, pp. 207-208).

Where this study also differs from Coryell (1927) and McConn (2016) is in its evaluation of teacher perceptions of the effectiveness of the model. In each of the aforementioned cases, the researcher was the teacher of record throughout the duration of the study. These studies intended to compare student performance in extensive versus intensive instructional models while controlling for differences in teaching styles and student groups (McConn, 2016, p.169). In this study, seven teachers spanning three schools in the same district conducted a full pedagogical shift in one or more of their assigned classes. Students in both the control and treatment-intervention groups were either enrolled in heterogeneously-mixed 8<sup>th</sup> grade classes, honors-track 9<sup>th</sup> grade classes, or 10<sup>th</sup> grade special education collaborative classes. While this design was more inclusive of students’ diverse abilities, the approach required close observation of teachers’ practice and interpretation of their professional development needs. Further, the present study was conducted over the course of one semester rather than a full academic year. This structure was established primarily to ensure that teacher participants had a fail-safe, or the autonomy to revert to a different instructional approach before the year was over if they were displeased with use the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model after the first semester.

McConn’s (2016) instrumentation did not account for students’ reader self-perceptions; instead, instrumentation was designed to measure students’ basic understanding of text, students’ ability to demonstrate awareness of the effects of literary



elements and techniques in text, and students' ability to demonstrate analytical and critical evaluation of text (p. 170). In this study, the RSPS2 survey was used to make "individual and group reading evaluations of adolescent-age students more nearly complete" (Henk, et al., 2013).

Both Coryell (1927) and McConn (2016) answered their research questions with sole use of quantitative data from student assessment scores. The present study included qualitative data to provide instructional context for the quantitative data. Though much can be learned from interpretation of students' assessment scores, the implausibility of controlling for extraneous variables associated with test taking in general necessitated inclusion of additional data to extend, or perhaps to elaborate on, quantitative results (Creswell, 2015, p. 537). It was unknown to what extent students' self-perceptions as readers and levels of comprehension could and would change over the course of one semester; therefore, inclusion of teachers' perceptions of student performance was useful to more fully evaluate the overall effectiveness of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model. The information gathered in this process is presented as accurate and credible through the use of member-checks and triangulation with quantitative data (Creswell, 2015, p. 258).

The researcher's hypothesis that the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based extensive literature instruction would be found just as effective as traditional intensive models in improving students' reading comprehension was guided in part by previous research on extensive and intensive instructional models. In both Coryell (1927) and McConn (2016), students in the extensive reading classes performed just as well as the students in the intensive reading classes in all assessments of reading

comprehension, and improvement in reading comprehension remained equal in both groups (McConn, 2016, pp. 174-176).

After the pretest leveled-reading assessment in the present study, students in the treatment/intervention group had a higher mean score ( $\mu = 84.71$ ) than students in the control group ( $\mu = 77.78$ ). The mean posttest score for students in the treatment group declined ( $\mu = 83.57$ ) as the mean score for students in the control group improved ( $\mu = 81.21$ ); however, a repeated measures ANOVA revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference in the scores for this assessment. Therefore, the results of this study are similar to those of Coryell (1927) and McConn (2016) in the evaluation of performance gains in reading comprehension. The results suggest that, on the basis of reading comprehension alone, each of the two instructional approaches are equally effective.

The researcher's additional hypothesis that students who experience the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop based instruction were likely to demonstrate positive growth in reader-self perceptions stemmed, in part, from the conceptual framework's presumption that Student Motivation to Read (SMR) is positively connected to students' ability to choose literature, students' selection of literature within their ability level, and improved teacher self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994; Kittle, 2013; Vygotsky, 1981). Students in the treatment/intervention group also yielded higher pretest and posttest scores for all scaled components of the RSPS2 survey, yet none of the measurements yielded a statistically significant difference between performance gains of both groups. According to this model neither instructional approach was more effective than the other in improving students' self-perceptions as readers.

The third research question was posed to gather information about teachers' self-efficacy in teaching literature with the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based instruction. It can be argued that teachers' self-efficacy is constructed in part through the academic performance and behavior of their students provided through classroom experiences (Bandura, 1994); therefore, this study used teacher-supplied data to make evidence-based inferences about the success of the model in improving students' motivation to read. For the purpose of this study, teacher feedback on students' apparent enjoyment and self-efficacy for reading is important because both are significant constructs in the multifaceted concept of student motivation (Smith et al., 2010).

QSR International NVivo 12 software was used to facilitate the evaluation of the multitude of qualitative data gathered from teacher interviews and classroom observations. Preliminary exploratory analyses and coding processes were used to identify the patterns and themes to answer the research questions (Creswell, 2015, p.242). As teachers were implementing the pedagogical shift, they had questions and concerns about the logistics of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model. The bulk of the concerns related to the suggested structure of the day, beginning the semester with free-choice/independent reading instead of a whole-class text, the teaching and assessment of writing skills, and general assessment of student progress. All but one of these concerns were mitigated through teachers' immersion in the practice: the suggested daily lesson plan structure [see Figure 2]. Both Kelly Gallagher and Penny Kittle (2018) taught high school classes in a block-scheduling model as they were writing *180 Days* (pp. 26-27). To adapt the suggested daily lesson plan structure, treatment-intervention group teachers attempted to structure their lessons with a model that presented an equitable reduction of

time for each activity for execution of all activities in a 41-minute class period. This was notable especially in the middle school, where teachers felt that behavior management needs necessitated extra time to give directions and less-frequent transitions from activity to activity. These were areas where students tended to lose focus and engage in off task behavior.

Despite this, teachers reported that the shift in pedagogy away from teacher-focused instruction was beneficial in improving student engagement in general. Initially some were concerned that use of minilessons to teach skills would not provide enough direct instruction time to cover the curriculum. Krashen (2013) argued that time to read is more important than time for direct instruction, as direct instruction on its own “does not result in significant literary competence” (p.22). Woodford (2016) found similar results in her own study on the use of Literature Circles to improve low-performing students’ reading comprehension. In it, she noted that “enabling greater student authoring and peer interaction around reading and related tasks” yielded indicators of improved student performance on comprehension assessments (p. 43). Data suggests that teachers in the treatment/intervention group came to understand that their habit of prioritizing classroom time for direct instruction was rooted more in an antiquated mental model of best practice. Teachers, especially at the middle school level, were pleased to see students working in groups thoughtfully engaging in meaningful discourse about the books they were reading. For many, it was an epiphany about their over-reliance on direct instruction in teaching literature. To this, Teacher E remarked on how surprising it was to see something other than off-task, time-wasting behavior in student groups, “I’m amazed...I was sitting in ninth period just watching, and I’m like, ‘They’re doing work.’... I was

literally just amazed that it was not only was it student driven, but it was like really student driven!”

Flowerday and Schraw (2003) maintain that students need to feel that they have more control in their learning in order to feel a greater sense of personal autonomy and enjoyment for their work. As the teachers in the treatment/intervention group revealed in their first interviews, relinquishing teacher control was a source of concern in regard to this pedagogical shift. By the end of the study, teachers appeared to nullify that fear. As Bernato (2017) suggests, the acknowledgement of assumptive thinking and practice as a false pedagogical guide is important to inspire meaningful change (p. 17).

The variable of student choice was particularly impactful, according to treatment-intervention group teachers. Through various forms of student-assessment, teachers had come to understand that, in one semester, students read more books than they had in past years. An important indicator of success was in helping students find the right book in the period of free-choice/independent reading as the semester began. Kittle argues in *Book Love* (2013), that boredom alone is not a reason for students to avoid reading. Students who struggle with the vocabulary, context and sentence length of a text may abandon reading to avoid a feeling of failure (p. 13). Teachers in the treatment/intervention group were careful to ensure that all students were able to find books that were of interest and within the students’ reading ability. They stocked their classroom libraries with titles spanning several Lexile measures and topics, from middle grades literature to canonical classics. Providing a diverse selection of texts made it easier for them to connect students with a book that they would want to read (Bishop, 1990; Kittle, 2013). For instance, teachers reported that books in verse were incredibly popular, as students were able to

finish them quickly and feel a sense of success on completing a book. In this, teachers learned to validate and respect students' literature choices (Leonhardt, 1993, p.28). This rationale speaks to why Gallagher and Kittle (2018) themselves suggest waiting until students have read many books, either independently or in small groups, before the introduction of a whole-class novel. By then, students should have improved their fluency, reading rate and comprehension enough to ready themselves for the challenges of a more-complex work of literature (Atwell, 1998).

An interpretation of the patterns and themes that emerged from teacher interviews and through use of the 180 Days Classroom Observation Protocol suggests that use of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based instruction improved teachers' self-efficacy as they recognized students' growing motivation for reading. Perhaps this is most evident in the fact that each teacher who participated in the treatment-intervention group stated their intent to finish the school year with the new pedagogy.

### **Limitations**

The rationale for use of a pretest posttest comparison group research design was to find a cause-effect relationship. The independent variable, the method of instruction, was manipulated for the treatment/intervention group students through implementation of the pedagogical shift in September 2019. The study aimed to compare two different independent variables through examination of participants' gain scores from pretest to posttest. One limitation of the study is in lack of statistically significant results in the measure of student performance gains from pretest to posttest on either assessment. Therefore, generalizability of the results was neither strong from reading comprehension nor for students' reader-self perceptions.

Another limitation of this study is in the timing of the pretests. Though the teacher volunteers were prepared to initiate the pedagogical shift at the beginning of the fall semester, the researcher was waiting to obtain IRB approval after submitting revisions to clarify a concern about a potential conflict of interest. Though their work was conducted in the medical field, Silberman and Kahn (2011) studied the impacts that delayed project initiation has on the execution of the study. One such nonmonetary ‘cost’ is the risk of losing participants “as a consequence of the IRB’s decisions” (p. 604). Fearing that some teacher volunteers in the treatment/intervention group might back out of the study because of the delay, the researcher decided to have them go ahead with their plans to initiate the pedagogical shift in September as the academic year began. Pretests were eventually administered shortly after IRB approval was obtained; however, student participants in the treatment/intervention group were already exposed to the method of instruction to be studied. As such, a threat to statistical conclusion of validity exists as the assumption that the instructional intervention would be new to students is not met (Kirk, 2013). This may explain why students in the treatment/intervention group scored consistently higher on both pretest posttest assessments; however, the existence or extent of such a covariance is unknown.

Another limitation of the study is in the construct of the leveled-reading assessment that was used to measure students’ reading comprehension. The leveled-reading assessment was used as a whole-class assessment and not exclusively with students and parents who consented to participate in the study. The assessment was designed with the NAEP Questions tool, which provided a bank of field-tested and validated questions and reading passages (National Assessment Governing Board, 2017);

however, the researcher's own field-testing of the adapted leveled-reading assessment did not adequately account for student attitudes toward the assessment. Prior to the administration of the assessments, students were informed that they would not receive their individual scores on the assessment, but rather that the scores would be used to measure their growth in comprehension to help inform decision-making about English language arts curricula. Though McNabola and O'Farrell (2015) found that students in higher education settings engage with and appreciate the use of assessment of their learning to inform instruction (p. 471), present-day perceptions of secondary students in this context is unknown. Further, the school district where the study was conducted is within the geographical region of New York State where the grassroots Opt-Out Movement influences how students and parents approach standardized testing. As Kirylo (2018) suggests, many parents involve their children in the decision to refuse testing, citing reasons that the tests do little to measure authentic learning. Such perceptions may have impacted the predisposition of the students, which may have led to poor performance or lack of cooperation in general based on a belief that the assessment would neither positively nor negatively impact their grade. (Kirk, 2013). To what extent such perceptions may have impacted student participants in this study was not explored.

Lack of students' apparent effort was most notable on the constructed response prompts on the posttest, with many appearing to have demonstrating stronger performance on the same question during the pretest administration. To control additional threats to the validity of inference-making with this instrument, the constructed response questions were not considered in the overall student performance scores. This left evaluation of student performance on the leveled-reading assessment to the multiple



choice portion of the exam. Wilde (2002) states that sole reliance on multiple choice questions to assess students' reading comprehension leads to difficulty in accurately measuring students' knowledge (p. 10). In addition to the above, the use of the same assessment for pretest posttest within the twenty-week time period presents a threat to internal validity because students' familiarity with the assessment's reading passages and questions could affect the dependent variable (Kirk, 2013).

A potential threat to validity is in the assurance that each of the seven teachers in the treatment-intervention group consistently applied the treatment instructional approach. Teachers themselves indicated that they made modifications to the model at times, either in reshaping the suggested structure of the day, or in skipping use of a whole-class text altogether. Despite this, the researcher's consistent use of teacher meetings and formal and informal classroom observations determined that there were no history-related threats to internal validity (Creswell, p. 304). Regardless of the extent to which teachers may have made modifications to the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model for time or sequence of events, they consistently utilized workshop-based extensive reading strategies with students. All teachers throughout the study consistently executed this specialized method of teaching literature.

Finally, the sample sizes are too small to make strong generalizations for all teachers and students in the population. Over 70 teachers districtwide were offered the opportunity to participate in the study as part of the control group or part of the treatment-intervention group. The twelve teachers that agreed to participate represents less than 20% of the overall population of teachers. With an average teacher caseload of 125 students, the 167 student participants among the 12 teacher participants is reflective of

only 11.1% of the total student population. Despite this, there were enough student participants from the treatment-intervention group (n=105) and control group (n=62) to surpass the minimum sample size criterion for a correlational study (Creswell, 2015, p.145).

### **Implications for Future Research**

The purpose of the study was to describe the impact that the implementation of one semester of Gallagher and Kittle's (2018) model of workshop-based extensive reading instruction has on secondary English language arts students' growth in reading comprehension and reader self-perceptions. The quantitative results suggest that neither the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) approach nor traditional intensive reading approaches are more effective with the improvement of either measure. However, the qualitative results do reveal an increase in teacher-self efficacy, which is known to be linked to encouraging indicators of improved student engagement (Bandura, 1994; Woodford, 2013).

The results of the present research in conjunction with examinations of past studies comparing outcomes of intensive and extensive instruction on secondary students suggest that more research is still needed in this area. It is unknown to what extent a number of limitations of the present study, such as in time, instrumentation, or sample size, may have influenced quantitative outcomes. For this reason, additional research of this kind is necessary to reveal the effectiveness of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model, particularly over the course of one or more academic years, with a larger sample, and with an instrument that is calibrated to measure growth in reading comprehension without the use of an assessment that mimics a standardized test. Additionally, the inclusion of student participants into focus groups would create an opportunity to gain a

more complete perspective on students' perceptions of their learning (Creswell, 2015, p. 218).

The Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model also lends itself to exploration of the teaching of writing, student writing performance, and self-perceptions as writers. Similarly to how *180 Days* provides a map for a year of reading, a suggested scope and sequence for writing was established based on the authors' reflections on how meaningful writing practice aids growth in rhetorical and textual analysis. With that, they argue that a year of writing should begin with the examination of fiction and creative nonfiction stories and follow with writing to explain and inform or writing to argue with plenty of room for creativity and choice (p. 83).

Future researchers might also examine best practice in secondary English instruction in the context of organizational leadership. As noted in this study's introduction, school districts are compelled to establish subject-area curricular guidelines that address state learning standards. To what extent teachers have agency in choosing their instructional approach within these curricular guidelines will vary by district (Tierney & Readence, 2000). Assuming that secondary English language arts teachers retain the autonomy to select their instructional approach, a question exists about mitigating factors involved in the selection of primarily intensive approach, a primarily extensive approach, or some variation of both throughout the school year. Reeves (2006) argues that educational leaders should not assume that teachers will make such choices based on the presentation of research of best practice, but they will instead rely on guidance from a colleague with whom they have an emotional attachment or trust-fueled bond (p. 33). Though there has been a resurgence in the popularity of workshop-based

extensive reading instruction thanks in part to the near celebrity status of Kelly Gallagher and Penny Kittle, Roberts (2018) observed that many teachers are reluctant to shift away from teaching with whole-class texts.

### **Implications for Future Practice**

There are many reasons why students may exhibit signs of disengagement or apathy for reading, and it's understandable why their secondary English teachers may suffer from poor self-efficacy as a result. As Bandura (1994) explicitly states, "It is difficult to achieve much while fighting self-doubt" (p. 4), and this theory likely relates to teachers' feelings of frustration and personal stagnation. However, the present study does confirm that students will engage with reading when they are motivated to do so, and this was found to have positively impacted teacher self-efficacy. The independent variable behind student motivation was use of the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based literature instruction. Teacher participants in the treatment/intervention group acknowledged having undergone a series of changes during the course of this study, almost all of which were propelled by student behavior. Teachers' beliefs in their abilities shape their classroom practices, and because the teachers themselves believe in the effectiveness of the model, there is a potential for sustainability within the pedagogical shift.

By the end of the study, all of the teacher participants reflected on specific classroom scenarios that occurred over the course of the semester that demonstrated students' engagement with reading. Students exhibited excitement for reading books that they were allowed to choose, students demonstrated a sense of pride when they completed books and moved on to others, and students in Book Clubs used class time to

engage in authentic discourse about their books rather than in off-task chatter. Most importantly, teachers observed students reading more books in the period of one semester than they ever had over the course of their individual careers. These observations offered teachers a high sense of efficacy, and they inspired the teachers to continue using the Gallagher and Kittle (2018) model of workshop-based instruction with their classes.

To what extent the literary canon is still relevant in secondary English curricula is likely to be a subject of debate for years to come. This study and those of McConn (2016) and Coryell (1927) that came before offer nearly a century of data to suggest that the practice of closely reading of complex texts for depth rather than breadth (Coleman, 2014) has not been proven to significantly improve students reading comprehension, appreciation for reading, or reader self-perceptions. Therefore, secondary English language arts teachers and instructional leaders must recognize that engaged reading is an essential component of English language arts curricula (Johnston & Ivey as cited in Gallagher & Kittle, 2018), students who feel they have more control in their learning will feel a greater sense of enjoyment for their work (Flowerday & Schraw, 2003), and heavy reliance on canonical works of literature is rooted more in tradition than in true best practice when it comes to instructional outcomes (Fisher & Ivey, 2007).

## Appendix A

### Informed Consent/Participant Assent Letters



#### Participant Permission Form (Teacher)

You have been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about to what extent reading instruction used in your English language arts class impacts students' growth in reading comprehension and reader-self perceptions. This study will be conducted by:

Mary A. Donnelly, EdD Candidate

The Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University

as part of her doctoral dissertation. Ms. Donnelly's faculty sponsor is Dr. Rene S. Parmar, The Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University.

If you consent to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

1. Participate in group and individual professional development meetings to take place during district department meetings and/or teacher professional periods.
2. Administer a pretest reading comprehension assessment
3. Administer a pretest questionnaire about students' self-perceptions as readers
4. Administer a posttest reading comprehension assessment
5. Administer a posttest questionnaire about students' self-perceptions as readers
6. Participate in two (2) researcher-led interviews

The study will be conducted entirely in the context of your role as an English language arts teacher, and it does not require any additional time outside of school.

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those of everyday life. Although you will receive no direct benefits, this research may help us better understand the overall effectiveness of secondary reading instruction in the school district.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained. When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity. No one other than the researcher will have access to the data. Each teacher participant will be assigned a euphemism. The list with the

participants' data will be stored on the researcher's personal computer in a password-protected file not connected to the internet. Once all data is collected, the participant lists and euphemisms will be destroyed. All other data will be stored until the study is completed.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. You also have the right to skip or not answer any interview questions that you prefer not to answer. Nonparticipation or withdrawal will neither affect your standing in the district nor result in any loss of privileges to which you are otherwise entitled.

If there is anything about the study or your participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact Ms. Donnelly via e-mail at [mary.donnelly02@stjohns.edu](mailto:mary.donnelly02@stjohns.edu) or the faculty sponsor Dr. Rene S. Parmar at 718-990-2503 or [parmarr@stjohns.edu](mailto:parmarr@stjohns.edu)

For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Institutional Review Board, St. John's University, Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, Chairperson, [digiuser@stjohns.edu](mailto:digiuser@stjohns.edu), 718-990-1955 or 718-990-1440.

If you consent to participation in this study, please return the signed form to Mary Donnelly as soon as possible.

***You have received a copy of this permission form to keep.***

### **Permission to Participate**

Name			
Signature		Date	



### Parental Permission Form

Your child has been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the extent that reading instruction in his/her English language arts class impacts growth in reading comprehension and reader-self perceptions. This study will be conducted by:

Mary A. Donnelly, EdD Candidate

The Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University

as part of her doctoral dissertation in partnership with your child's English language arts teacher. Ms. Donnelly's faculty sponsor is Dr. Rene S. Parmar, The Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University.

If you give permission for your child's participation in the study, your child will be asked to do the following:

1. Complete a pretest reading comprehension assessment in September
2. Complete a pretest questionnaire about his/her self-perceptions as a reader in September
3. Complete a posttest reading comprehension assessment in January
4. Complete a posttest questionnaire about his/her self-perceptions as a reader in January

The study will be conducted entirely in the context of your child's English language arts class and does not require any additional time outside of school.

There are no known risks associated with your child's participation in this research beyond those of everyday life. Although your child will receive no direct benefits, this research may help us understand the overall effectiveness of secondary reading instruction in your child's English language arts classes better.

Confidentiality of your child's research records will be strictly maintained. When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your child's identity. No one other than the researcher will have access to the data, including your child's English language arts teacher. Each participant will be assigned a number. The list with the participants' data and assessment scores will be stored on the researcher's personal computer in a password-protected file not connected to the internet. Once all data is collected, the participant lists and codes will be destroyed. All other data will be stored until the study is completed.



Participation in this study is voluntary. Your child may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Your child also has the right to skip or not answer any questions on the assessments and surveys that he/she prefers not to answer.

Nonparticipation or withdrawal will neither affect your child's grades or academic standing nor result in any loss of services to which your child is otherwise entitled.

If there is anything about the study or your child's participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact Ms. Donnelly via e-mail at [mary.donnelly02@stjohns.edu](mailto:mary.donnelly02@stjohns.edu) or the faculty sponsor Dr. Rene S. Parmar at 718-990-2503 or [parmarr@stjohns.edu](mailto:parmarr@stjohns.edu)

For questions about your child's rights as a research participant, you may contact the Institutional Review Board, St. John's University, Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, Chairperson, [digiuser@stjohns.edu](mailto:digiuser@stjohns.edu), 718-990-1955 or 718-990-1440

If you consent to your child's participation in this study, please return the signed form to your child's English language arts teacher as soon as possible.

You have received a copy of this parental permission form to keep.

### **Permission to Participate**

Name of Child			
Parent/Guardian Signature		Date	



### Participant Permission Form (Student)

You are invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the extent that reading instruction in your English language arts class impacts your reading comprehension and reader-self perceptions. This study will be conducted by:

Mary A. Donnelly, EdD Candidate

The Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University

as part of her doctoral dissertation in partnership with your English language arts teacher. Ms. Donnelly's faculty sponsor is Dr. Rene S. Parmar, The Department of Administrative and Instructional Leadership, St. John's University.

The study will be conducted entirely in the context of your English language arts class and does not require any additional work on your part or time outside of school. If you give permission to participate, you are giving the researcher permission to use your scores for the following four classroom assignments in the study:

1. A pretest reading comprehension assessment
2. A pretest questionnaire about your self-perceptions as a reader
3. A posttest reading comprehension assessment
4. A posttest questionnaire about your self-perceptions as a reader

There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research beyond those of everyday life. Although you will receive no direct benefits, this research may help us better understand the overall effectiveness of secondary reading instruction in your English language arts classes.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained. When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity. No one other than the researcher will have access to the data, including your English language arts teacher. If you agree to participate, you will be assigned a code number. The list with your data and assessment scores will be stored on the researcher's personal computer in a password-protected file not connected to the internet. Once all data is collected, the participant lists and codes will be destroyed. All other data will be stored until the study is completed.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Nonparticipation or withdrawal will neither affect your grades or academic standing nor result in any loss of services to which you are otherwise entitled.

If there is anything about the study or your participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact Ms. Donnelly via e-mail at [mary.donnelly02@stjohns.edu](mailto:mary.donnelly02@stjohns.edu) or the faculty sponsor Dr. Rene S. Parmar at 718-990-2503 or [parmarr@stjohns.edu](mailto:parmarr@stjohns.edu).

For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Institutional Review Board, St. John's University, Dr. Raymond DiGiuseppe, Chairperson, [digiuser@stjohns.edu](mailto:digiuser@stjohns.edu), 718-990-1955 or 718-990-1440.

If you consent to participate in this study, please return the signed form to your English language arts teacher as soon as possible.

***You have received a copy of this permission form to keep.***

### **Permission to Participate**

Your Name			
Your Signature		Date	

## **Appendix B**

### **The Reader Self-Perception Scale 2 (RSPS2)**

#### **Directions for Administration, Scoring and Interpretation:**

*Note:* The RSPS2 is a public domain instrument; however, the International Reading Association holds the copyright for the instrument. For this reason, a summary of the directions for administration, scoring and interpretation are provided.

#### **Administration:**

In order for the administration of the RSPS2 to be successful, students must understand the directions, have enough time to complete the survey, and make thoughtful and honest responses.

Those administering the RSPS2 should do the following:

1. Have students write their first and last name on the top of the survey.
2. Explain to students that they are being asked to complete a survey that is designed to learn more about how they feel about themselves as readers.
3. Explain to students that they will be reading a series of statements and will be asked to indicate their response based on a 5-point scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). Discuss the response options to ensure that students understand how to use the rating scale.
4. Inform students that the survey may take 15-20 minutes to complete, but they can take as much time as needed to complete it. When students finish, they should turn the survey over to signal that it is ready to be collected by the teacher. They may work quietly on another task until all students are finished.
5. Emphasize that this is not a test and that there are no correct or incorrect responses, and remind students that their responses will be kept confidential.

#### **Scoring:**

To score the RSPS2, enter the corresponding point value with the response students selected for each of the scales to establish a raw score by scale (ie: Strongly Agree = 5 points, Agree = 4 points, and so on).

#### **Interpretation:**

Each scale score can be interpreted by comparing it with the criteria on the scoring sheet provided with the instrument. Descriptive statistics by grade level for each scale as well

as percentile rankings by scale are provided with the instrument for the evaluator to compare individual students' performance with the norming group.

<b>PROGRESS</b>	<b>OBSERVATIONAL COMPARISON</b>	<b>SOCIAL FEEDBACK</b>	<b>PHYSIOLOGICAL STATES</b>
High: 74+ Above Average: 66-73 Average: 60-65 Low: 48 -	High: 39+ Above Average: 34-38 Average: 28-33 Low: 28-	High: 35+ Above Average: 31-34 Average: 28-30 Low: 27-	High: 50+ Above Average: 44-49 Average: 35-43 Low: 34

### **The Reader Self-Perception Scale 2**

**Note:** The RSPS2 is a public domain instrument; however, the International Reading Association holds the copyright for the instrument. For this reason, a brief sample of the instrument is provided:

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(PS) 1. Reading is a pleasant activity for me.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PR) 2. I read better now than I could before.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PR) 3. I can handle more challenging reading materials than I could before.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(SF) 4. Other students think I'm a good reader.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(OC) 5. I need less help than other students when I read.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PS) 6. I feel comfortable when I read.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PR) 7. When I read, I don't have to try as hard to understand as I used to do.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(SF) 8. My classmates like to listen to the way that I read.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PR) 9. I am getting better at reading.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(OC) 10. When I read, I can figure out words better than other students.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(SF) 11. My teachers think I am a good reader.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(OC) 12. I read better than other students in my classes.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(OC) 13. My reading comprehension level is higher than other students.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PS) 14. I feel calm when I read.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(OC) 15. I read faster than other students.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(SF) 16. My teachers think that I try my best when I read.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PS) 17. Reading tends to make me feel calm.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PR) 18. I understand what I read better than I could before.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(PR) 19. I can understand difficult reading materials better than before.	SA	A	U	D	SD
(OC) 20. When I read, I can handle difficult ideas better than my classmates.	SA	A	U	D	SD

## Appendix C

### *180 Days Classroom Observation Protocol*

#### **Domain 2 Focus: Classroom Environment Checklist and Lookfors**

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#### **Upon Entering the Room, Check for -**

- **2e Organizing Physical Space** As soon as you step in the door, scan the room to get a sense of the learning environment. Does the room feel pleasant and inviting? Does the teacher seem aware that the room is her silent curriculum, representing her stance towards literacy learning? Is there evidence that the teacher has tried to make the children feel welcome (perhaps there are different areas/nooks in the room)? Look to see if the arrangement of furniture seems purposeful, perhaps with clear functions for one part of the room and another. Does the room seem to be a statement about what matters (to that teacher, to those kids)? The room should feel well-kept and safe.

#### **Lesson Transitions, Check for -**

- **2c Managing Classroom Procedures** Presumably, early in your observations, the teacher will shift students to whatever it is the teacher wants you to observe. Perhaps the teacher convenes the class for a minilesson or a read aloud, for example, or channels students towards social studies centers. As students are asked to transition from one learning activity to another, look to see how instructional time is maximized. Do students know what to do and where to move? There should be very little lost time during transitions. Is there evidence that students know where things go and that they play an important role in the handling of supplies? Best of all, do students take initiative in the management of transitions, perhaps hurrying a classmate, or reminding others to bring materials to the meeting area. If this is a beginning of the year observation, routines may not seem as automatized, and now you will look for whether the teacher coaches in ways that help not just with managing today but also with showing students expectations that last beyond today (“Whenever you come to the meeting area, remember...”). Early in the year, the teacher may take students through a more step-by-step transition, highlighting specific expectations (“Come quickly, not dawdling.”) However, at a later time in the year, you would expect to see that most routines are nearly automatic and students do not need to be told how to perform them successfully. Notice, too, whether students are sitting with long term partners, as this shows that the teacher has created routines in place that allow time to be used efficiently.

- **2d Managing Student Behavior** Transitions can be a time when students misbehave, and an instance of misbehavior can happen in anyone's classroom. Just as students' errors in reading reveal a lot and are crucial in a running record, instances of student misbehavior, whenever they occur, will reveal a lot to an observer. Does the teacher seem attuned to what is happening, able to anticipate some potential problems and to handle them before they become an issue? When students do still misbehave, does the teacher address the misbehavior early and with subtlety, in a way that respects the dignity of the student? Is positive behavior reinforced? Does the teacher convey that positive behavior matters because it allows for learning ("We don't want to waste a minute of reading time!")?
- **2e Organizing Physical Space** As students transition to different parts of the room, look for evidence of how well the classroom environment has been organized to allow for the learning activities. When students gather in the meeting area, are all students able to see and hear so they can participate actively? If students are moving off to work independently, is the room aligned to the learning activities? Students may even take initiative to adjust the physical environment. You might see students close the classroom door to block out noise, pull chairs or rug squares or pillows into a circle, or take rug squares into the hallway if they are going there to work. Does a student suggest something should be added to a chart? The use of resources is part of this component, so look to see if the teacher seems to be making effective use of resources which, in a reading/writing workshop, will be apt to include charts, schedules for the day, and either reading logs, Post-its, baggies, or writing notebooks (paper)/folders. If the teacher will be using technology (even charts—they count!) in a minilesson or read aloud, is this handled smoothly and without wasted time? Notice if there are any modifications in the resources—writing notebooks, paper choice, texts—or in the physical environment (a special place to sit or work) to accommodate students with special needs.

**Connection, Check for –**

- **2a Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport** During the Connection, watch to see the teacher's rapport with the students. Look to see how the teacher connects with student's right at the start of the lesson. The teacher's body language should indicate warmth and caring toward the students; leaning toward them and conveying interest and engagement through facial expressions indicate the teacher values this opportunity to teach something important. Is there evidence of an attentiveness to help all students feel ready to learn?
- **2b Establishing a Culture for Learning** Listen for evidence during the connection that the teacher is conveying the educational importance of the work, perhaps by talking about the fact that she thought hard about the most important thing she could teach, or by suggesting that the lesson she would be teaching is

one that adults need as well, or by showing her own passion for the content. This may be a time when the teacher conveys the value of hard work and perseverance, by saying something like, “You’ll have the chance to work really hard on...” Perhaps during the connection the teacher expresses surprise that some students’ previous work didn’t represent the high standards to which the class aspires. The connection in a minilesson often sets the tone of and captures the norms for the unit.

#### **Teaching, Check for –**

- **2b Establishing a Culture of Learning** Look for evidence that the teacher conveys the message that this work is challenging, but that students are capable of achieving it, with some hard work. Instruction that highlights the importance of rethinking, of revising, of lifting the level of one’s work towards clear goals all provides evidence for 2b. When the teacher conveys a passion for the subject, satisfaction in working hard to do something very well, this is evidence of 2b.

#### **Active Engagement, Check for –**

- **2c Managing Classroom Procedures** If students shift smoothly between listening and “turning to talk” or “stopping to jot,” this is evidence of seamless routines. Notice, too, whether students initiate ways to improve upon those routines. If a partner is absent, does another partnership incorporate the lone student? If someone needs to record the conversation, do students initiate doing this?

#### **Link, Check for –**

- **2b. Establishing a Culture for Learning** Sometimes in the link, the teacher may again convey that the content is significant. Look to see if the link sends students off with purpose, ready to tackle important work. Does the teacher’s sendoff compel students to move off with a sense of urgency?
- **2c. Managing Classroom Procedures** It’s no small feat to help an entire class of students make the transition from a minilesson to work time. Look for transitions that maintain momentum and maximize instructional time. Little time should be wasted between the minilesson and independent work time. Watch to see if the teacher helps students develop routines that make transitions happen quickly, creating a classroom that seems to “run itself.” Students may even participate in helping each other get started!

#### **Independent Practice, Check for –**

- **2c Managing Classroom Procedures** This component will come up now in two ways. First, how does the teacher manage both the whole class and the small groups? Are kids able to self-monitor enough that it is possible for one or more



small groups to function while the rest of the class also works productively? Then, too, 2C related to whether there is evidence that kids know how to participate in a small group, with the teacher or without the teacher, whatever the case might be. Do students share in the responsibility of managing transitions and group procedures? Do they have routines for talking with each other? Do they take initiative to make the group go well or to using materials effectively? This might mean that class members collect materials needed from the writing center or library, or they consult classroom charts for guidance.

- **2b Establishing a Culture of Learning** Gauge the culture of learning that has been established, looking for a classroom that is almost business-like, where there is a clear sense that important work is being undertaken. One might see a sense of urgency shown in students who get right to work after the minilesson, whose body language conveys investment in the work. Watch for indications that work is done and then self-assessed and improved, as this shows high expectations for the quality of work, effort, and persistence? Watch, also, for evidence that students consult a chart or a mentor text or another student for help lifting the level of work.
- **2d Managing student behavior** Notice if the teacher has his or her hand on the pulse of the room. Also, look for indications that students know the code of expected behavior. Hopefully a subtle reminder from the teacher, a gesture, a look is sufficient to channel kids. For example, if the teacher notices kids inappropriately talking and moves near them, quieting them with her presence. Look to see if kids self-monitor (and ideally, help each other), to follow the code of expectations. Do they whisper reminders to each other, suggest a discussion is too repetitive?

**\*Conferring, Check for –**

- **2b Establishing a Culture of Learning** Observe the culture of learning to see how students listen and engage during conferences. How do they hold themselves accountable to the work that is clearly defined in the culture the teacher sets up in the classroom? If the year is well underway, do students understand that it is their responsibility to discuss their ongoing learning during the conference? If it is the beginning of the year, does the teacher help the student to assume that role? Students should be able to speak with a fair amount of precision in thought and language as they express their intentions, thoughts and goals. There should be a sense that the student is undertaking work that involves a high level of cognitive energy, and that the classroom is a place where the teacher and students value learning and working hard.

**Share, check for –**

- **2c Managing Classroom Procedures** You will want to see how quickly the teacher gains the students' attention and if appropriate, transitions the students to the meeting area.

**\*Student Collaboration, check for –**

- **2a Creating an Environment of Respect and Rapport** Throughout any student-run discussion, you'll want to look for how the students treat each other. At the start, you can watch to see if students are looking at the speaker. There should be no disrespectful behavior among students. During the conversation, you would hope to see students demonstrating an understanding of what it means to be an active listener--waiting for each person to finish a thought before adding on to the conversation, looking at each other, nodding to show they are listening, and so on. When students disagree or want to correct another, you'll want to see them doing so respectfully. There may be evidence that the teacher has taught students ways in which to politely disagree, using phrases like, "I understand what you are saying, but I disagree because..." You want to see that students feel valued by the others and that there is no fear of ridicule or put downs.
- **2c Managing Classroom Procedures** During student-led group or partnership work, you can watch to see if there are routines in place for how students work together. Ideally, students know how to manage their own time together. Do the students seem to know how to handle gathering any supplies that are needed? Do they seem to follow established routines? For example, in a book club conversation, you may see one student take a lead in facilitating the conversation, another act as recorder, taking down the ideas of the group, and so on. The major point to consider is if there a sense that these students are ensuring that this time is used productively? At the start of the year or if this is first time students have met together to do this sort of work, you may see more coaching by the teacher to help students to internalize routines.
- **2b Establishing a Culture for Learning** You'll want to see that this is a cognitively busy group. That is, they are not just talking to hear themselves talk but there is a sense that they have a shared belief in the importance of what they are discussing or doing. Look for evidence that the students consider it their responsibility to work hard during partnership, book club, or whole class conversations. Do they indicate a desire to think about and explore ideas? Do they take the partnerships and clubs seriously, working to stay on task and improve the quality of their work? Do they assist each other in these goals, perhaps through gentle reminders? Students should be able to work purposefully and cooperatively with little supervision from the teacher, and therefore play an important role in managing the classroom.

*\*if applicable in this lesson*

## Appendix D

### Leveled-Reading Assessment Questions

**Please note:** These questions are in the public domain.

#### Passage 1 Questions:

1. When the author mentions the possibility of people turning into **puritans**, she is using this word to refer to people who
  - A. lived a long time ago
  - B. rarely make a mistake
  - C. are serious and reserved
  - D. dress in plain and dark clothing
2. At the beginning of the essay, the author suggests that people are so concerned with having fun that they
  - A. try to find fun in all their experiences
  - B. spend a lot of money trying to have fun
  - C. join groups to learn how to have fun
  - D. avoid new experiences that may not be fun
3. What is the author's point about big occasions like holidays?
  - A. They go by too quickly to be enjoyed.
  - B. They are not as much fun as people expect them to be.
  - C. They have become too centered around money.
  - D. They help us to appreciate the important events in life.
4. The author assumes that the people reading her essay
  - A. probably had fun going to amusement parks as children
  - B. prefer dangerous experiences over fun activities
  - C. may be worried that they are not having enough fun
  - D. enjoy discussing the topic of fun
5. When the author tells us to "treat fun **reverently**," she is encouraging us to
  - A. look forward to having fun
  - B. have great respect for fun
  - C. teach others how to have fun
  - D. have fun less frequently

6. What is the author implying in the paragraph below?

*Think of all the things that got the reputation of being fun. Family outings were supposed to be fun. Education was supposed to be fun. Work was supposed to be fun. Walt Disney was supposed to be fun. Church was supposed to be fun. Staying fit was supposed to be fun.*

- A. It is possible to have fun in a wide range of activities.
- B. A person's reputation is based on how much fun the person has.
- C. Most daily activities are less important than we think.
- D. We should not expect everything in life to be fun.

A. Explain what the author means when she says, "Fun is a rare jewel."

B. Explain how the paragraph about television commercials relates to the author's main point about fun.

C. Describe the author's tone or voice in the essay. Use an example from the essay to support your answer.

D. The author ends the essay with a childhood story. Does the childhood story do a better job persuading readers of the author's point than the other parts of the essay? Explain why or why not.

### Passage 2 Questions:

7. What did the boy do to become successful?

- A. He raised hens from the eggs the innkeeper gave him.
- B. He became a sea merchant and traveled to many places.
- C. He learned from the innkeeper how to make his fortune.
- D. He borrowed money to buy a new sailing ship.

8. When the boy asks for food, the innkeeper says, "I'll see what I can spare." This means that the innkeeper

- A. wants the boy to pay for the food
- B. has to prepare extra food for the boy
- C. is willing to give up some food
- D. is worried that the food is stale

9. The innkeeper says the merchant owes him ten thousand akches. What reason does the innkeeper give for that amount?

- A. Eggs have become more expensive.
- B. The merchant has taken too long to repay him.
- C. Hens would have hatched from the eggs.
- D. The merchant has promised to pay any price.

10. The story says that the innkeeper was “**eager** to make a profit.” This means that the innkeeper

- A. had a dishonest plan to make money
- B. thought a lot about how to make money
- C. tried to make money by raising prices
- D. really wanted to make money

11. What is the main reason Nasreddin Hodja tells the judge about the corn?

- A. To suggest that the corn could be harvested
- B. To win the court case for the merchant
- C. To make the judge become even angrier
- D. To make the people in the courtroom laugh

12. Why does the judge decide that the merchant does not have to pay?

- A. Nasreddin Hodja shows that the innkeeper's demand is silly.
- B. The innkeeper finally agrees that the merchant is right.
- C. The amount of money the innkeeper wants is much too high.
- D. Nasreddin Hodja proves that he is a good friend of the judge.

E. Describe what kind of person the merchant is. Give one detail from the story to support your answer.

F. The merchant mutters, “I’m ruined!” explain what the merchant means when he says this. Use information from the story in your answer.

G. Do you think that the innkeeper changes in the story? Use specific information from the beginning and end of the story to support your opinion.

H. Who do you think is the most important character in the story? Explain your opinion using specific information from the story.

### **Passage 3 Questions:**

13. What is the main purpose of the article?

- A. To explain why the aquarium released the white shark
- B. To compare white sharks with other fish living in captivity
- C. To argue that white sharks should be studied more
- D. To describe how one white shark survived living in an aquarium

14. When John O'Sullivan says the baby white shark is **fascinating**, he means that she
- A. was swimming very fast
  - B. was very interesting to watch
  - C. could swim better than other sharks
  - D. liked to perform for aquarium visitors
15. According to the article, why has it been difficult to keep white sharks in captivity?
- A. They grow too quickly.
  - B. They escape from the outer tank.
  - C. They do not eat.
  - D. They need very large tanks.
16. What does it mean that the baby shark had been caught **accidentally**?
- A. the fisherman was not trying to catch a shark
  - B. the shark was hurt while it was being caught
  - C. the fisherman had used a special floating pen
  - D. the shark had bumped into the fishing boat
17. After she was captured, why was the baby white shark kept in a special floating pen?
- A. To help her get used to a small space
  - B. To make sure she would not attack other fish
  - C. To help her learn how to eat different food
  - D. To make sure she was not sick
18. Why did scientists attach a tag to the white shark before setting her free?
- A. To track her growth over the next few years
  - B. To make sure she stayed healthy after her release
  - C. To prevent her from being caught by fishing boats
  - D. To track where she swam after her release
- I. Does the box on page 12 called "White Shark Facts" help you understand the rest of the article? Explain your answer using information from both the box and the rest of the article.
- J. The last section of the article is called "A Message Home." Is this a good heading for that section? Explain your answer using information from the article.
- K. Based on the article, is it a good idea to keep white sharks in captivity? Explain your answer using information from the article.
- L. Describe a strength and a weakness in the way the author presents the information in the article. Support your answer with examples from the article.

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